

Review article

Sex determination and sex differentiation in fish: an overview of genetic, physiological, and environmental influences

Robert H. Devlin^{a,*}, Yoshitaka Nagahama^b

^a*West Vancouver Laboratory, Fisheries and Oceans Canada, 4160 Marine Drive,
West Vancouver, B.C., Canada V7V 1N6*

^b*Laboratory of Reproductive Biology, Department of Developmental Biology,
National Institute for Basic Biology, Okazaki 444-8585, Japan*

Contents

1. Introduction	193
2. Developmental and cellular events	195
2.1. Development of germ cells.	195
2.2. Early gonadal development	200
3. Gonadal differentiation	201
3.1. Gonochoristic species	201
3.2. Normal hermaphrodites	202
3.3. Abnormal hermaphrodites and intersexes	206
3.4. Stability of sex determination in gonochorists	207
4. Endocrine and molecular control of sex differentiation.	209
4.1. Enzymology of steroid production in fish	209
4.2. Cell types involved in sex steroid production	210
4.3. Ontogenesis of steroid production in fish	212
4.4. Receptor-mediated action of sex steroids	215
4.5. Hormonal control of vitellogenesis	215
4.6. Hormonal control of sexual maturation	217
4.7. Neuroendocrine control of gonad development	219

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +1-604-666-7926; fax: +1-604-666-3497.
E-mail address: devlinr@pac.dfo-mpo.gc.ca (R.H. Devlin).

4.8.	<i>Steroidal control of sex differentiation in hermaphrodites</i>	222
4.9.	<i>Neuroendocrine control of gonadal differentiation</i>	224
4.10.	<i>Extragonadal metabolism and secretion of sex steroids</i>	225
5.	<i>Sex-determination systems</i>	226
5.1.	<i>Genetic determination of sex</i>	227
5.2.	<i>Cytogenetic evidence for sex chromosomes in fish</i>	231
5.3.	<i>Evolution and plasticity of fish sex chromosomes</i>	232
5.4.	<i>Genetic and molecular evidence for sex chromosomes</i>	236
5.4.1.	<i>Phenotypic markers</i>	236
5.4.2.	<i>Protein markers</i>	237
5.4.3.	<i>DNA markers</i>	238
5.5.	<i>Polyfactorial control of sex determination</i>	243
5.5.1.	<i>Sex ratios from regular crosses</i>	243
5.5.2.	<i>Hybridization</i>	244
5.6.	<i>Crosses involving sex-reversed individuals</i>	245
5.7.	<i>Unconventional genetic mechanisms</i>	248
5.7.1.	<i>Induced gynogenesis</i>	248
5.7.2.	<i>Natural gynogenesis</i>	252
5.7.3.	<i>Hybridogenesis</i>	255
5.7.4.	<i>Androgenesis</i>	256
5.7.5.	<i>Polyploidy</i>	257
5.7.6.	<i>Aneuploidy</i>	259
6.	<i>Environmental effects on sex determination</i>	259
6.1.	<i>Exogenous steroids</i>	259
6.2.	<i>Temperature and other physical variables</i>	269
6.3.	<i>Behavioural control of sex differentiation</i>	273
6.4.	<i>Pollution</i>	275
7.	<i>Elucidation of sex-determining mechanisms in fish species</i>	278
7.1.	<i>Cytogenetic studies</i>	278
7.2.	<i>Analysis of sex ratios among families</i>	278
7.3.	<i>Examine progeny sex ratios from sex-reversed individuals</i>	279
7.4.	<i>Development of monosex strains</i>	279
7.5.	<i>Isolation of sex-specific DNA markers</i>	280
8.	<i>Conclusion and future</i>	282
	<i>Acknowledgements</i>	282
	<i>Appendices</i>	283
	<i>Appendix A. Hermaphroditism in fish</i>	283
	<i>Appendix B. Karyotypes where the presence of sex chromosomes has been investigated in fish</i>	291
	<i>References</i>	304

Abstract

A great deal of information is known regarding the process of sex differentiation in fish, and the mechanisms involved in primary sex determination are now beginning to be defined. A range of gonadal differentiation types have been described for fish, including gonochoristic species possessing purely ovarian or testicular tissues, as well as hermaphroditic species that can initially mature either as males (protandrous) or females (protogynous). Sex determination in fish is a very flexible process with respect to evolutionary patterns observed among genera and families, and within individuals is subject to modification by external factors. These influences can affect the fate of both somatic and germ cells within the primordial gonad, and include the action of genetic, environmental (e.g. temperature), behavioural, and physiological factors. Exogenous sex steroids administered at the time of sex determination can strongly influence the course of sex differentiation in fish, suggesting that they play a critical role in assignment of gonad determination as well as subsequent differentiation. Detailed information is available from fish systems describing the production of sex steroids, as well as the enzymes involved in steroid production. Both estradiol and the maturation hormone 17α , 20β -dihydroxy-4-pregnen-3-one (17α , 20β -DP) are produced by a two-step process involving different cell layers in the gonad, and have effects on the differentiation of gonadal and nongonadal tissues. Gonadal development and differentiation in some fish is also controlled by hormones from the pituitary gland (gonadotropins) that are regulated by release hormones (GnRH) and other neuroendocrine and gonadal factors. Genetic determination of sex in fish can involve monogenic or polygenic systems, with factors located on the autosomes or on sex chromosomes. In the latter case, both male (XY) and female (ZW) heterogametic systems have been described, as well as many subtle variations on these themes. Sex chromosomes are found in approximately 10% of fish species examined, and sex-linked phenotypic traits, and protein and molecular genetic markers have been identified in several fish systems. Some species of fish reproduce gynogenetically, producing all-female populations. Several gene families known to be involved in sex determination in other vertebrates have recently been shown to be similarly involved in fish, suggesting conservation of sex determination pathways. The lability of sex-determination systems in fish makes some species sensitive to environmental pollutants capable of mimicking or disrupting sex hormone actions. Such observations provide important insight into potential impacts from endocrine disruptors, and can provide useful monitoring tools for impacts on aquatic environments. © 2002 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Sexual differentiation; Sex determination; Fish; Gonadal differentiation; Sex steroids; Genetic sex determination; Sex chromosomes; Sex ratios; Polyploidy

1. Introduction

It has been over 30 years since the publication of Yamamoto's (1969) seminal review on sex differentiation in fish. Yamamoto's review summarized historical information on gonadal types, hermaphroditism, genetic sex determination, and the influence of sex steroids on sex differentiation, but also provided an important framework for investigation from which followed an explosion of research. In many respects, the broad genetic and physiological principles outlined by Yamamoto remain unchanged, although a great deal of new literature in this area has extended his conclusions to new fish species. On many

issues, additional supporting evidence and revealing exceptions have been obtained, and technological advances occurring in the past 30 years are allowing refinement of the level of study into areas of biochemistry and molecular biology.

The study of sex determination in fish is important for several reasons. There are more than 24,000 species of fish (Nelson, 1994) inhabiting a wide range of aquatic habitats worldwide, providing a rich source of material for academic and applied studies on vertebrate sex determination. Sex determination research in fish has broadened our understanding of this process beyond the specific details found within the group. In particular, the research has provided important insight into the plasticity of the sex-determination process in vertebrates, something that humans do not anthropomorphically anticipate because of the relative stability of sex determination in our species. Focus on or attachment to genetic systems involving X and Y chromosomes must quickly be shed in studies of sex determination in fish due to the diversity of mechanisms utilized, and, by doing so, the researcher can explore alternative regulatory mechanisms that hold important clues for understanding sex determination in general. The biology and ecology of fish is sufficiently diverse to provide unique examples of sex-determination mechanisms, yet they possess many of the same processes and pathways that are used in other vertebrate systems. Because they are amenable to artificial culture and experimental investigation in many cases, fish also provide unique opportunities to investigate and test theoretical concepts of sex determination, ranging from evolutionary mechanisms to biochemical processes.

A perhaps more practical reason for studying sex determination in fish relates to the explosion of human populations in the past two centuries. Food from aquatic systems is an increasingly important component of the human food supply, and finfish comprise the majority of biomass harvested therefrom. Recovery of fish from ocean sources has plateaued in the past decade, forcing demand for aquatic protein to be met through aquaculture production systems. It is imperative that we understand the reproductive biology of harvested species in wild systems to allow effective management and prediction of potential impacts. Similarly, in aquaculture systems, understanding and controlling reproduction is central to the efficient propagation of organisms due to differential growth rates of the sexes and a need for synchronous and reliable maturation.

As integral members of our ecosystem, fish are also becoming increasingly important indicators of environmental health on our planet, with respect to habitat restriction and degradation. In cases where the reproductive capacity of fish populations appear to be compromised, it is necessary to understand the natural population dynamics and life history characteristics of the species involved. Part of this understanding involves knowledge of the strategies and mechanisms involved in reproduction and sex determination to better facilitate investigation into the organismal points of impact.

The present review attempts to summarize research into sex determination in fish from the past 30 years, with a focus on the past two decades. The information presented is focussed on the determination of gonadal sex (the primary controls influencing the course of sex differentiation) and the associated physiological processes that support gonadal development and function. Sex differentiation (the process of gonad development after sex has been determined), sexually influenced characteristics such as behaviour, or morphological or biochemical secondary sex characteristics, are only mentioned briefly when in

context with other observations or when the sex-determination process is labile or can be reversed. The distinction between sex determination and sex differentiation is often difficult since we regularly use criteria of sex differentiation (morphological, cellular, and molecular) to infer whether sex has been determined in a particular direction. For the purposes of this review, sex determination is used to describe the genetic and environmental processes and variables that influence sex differentiation, whereas sex differentiation is used to describe the physical realization of these events in terms of testicular or ovarian development. For additional and historical information and additional views, the reader will be referred in each section to earlier excellent summaries on various aspects of material presented in the current review. In particular, excellent recent reviews discuss aspects of the developmental biology, endocrinology and environmental factors associated with gonadal differentiation and sex differentiation in teleosts (Nakamura et al., 1998; Baroillier et al., 1999). An apology is extended to researchers for omissions from, and terse presentation of, many important studies in this review, primarily resulting from an attempt to provide examples rather than comprehensive coverage of all studies in a particular area. Thus, the reader is encouraged to use the information provided herein as an introduction, from which more in-depth investigations of any chosen area may be undertaken. A visual summary of sex-determination mechanisms utilized by fish is presented in Fig. 1 to assist the reader.

2. Developmental and cellular events

Critical to our understanding of sex-determination processes are studies examining the origin and development of cells and organs involved in the formation of the primordial gonad (Yamamoto, 1969; Chan and Yeung, 1983; Nakamura et al., 1998). Such information includes the descriptive movements of cells during embryonic and subsequent development, interactions among cell types, and differentiation of cells and organs into specialized cell types unique to the testis or ovary. Further, the interactions among germ cells, adjacent somatic cells, and specialized tissues in other organs, all play a role in the development of functional sexes in fish.

Typical of vertebrates, fertilization and egg activation in fish are followed by repeated mitotic cell division to produce a blastula comprised of cells with wide developmental potential (Nilsson and Cloud, 1992). Many fish species possess telolecithal eggs, and meroblastic cleavage distributes cells as a thin blastodisc layer atop a large yolky mass. With subsequent cell movements, development proceeds to the gastrula stage where cell interactions, inductions, and differentiation into germ layers and specialized cell and tissue types ensues. The presumptive gonad region is termed the germinal ridge (Balinsky, 1975), and forms as a longitudinal thickening of mesoderm that protrudes into the coelomic cavity ventral to the developing kidney and lateral to the dorsal mesentery.

2.1. Development of germ cells

The structure of fish gonads is similar to that of other vertebrates, with germ cells and associated supporting somatic cells intermixed. Within both ovary and testis, a clear

distinction between germ and somatic cells can be made (particularly at later stages), with the former having the potential to mitotically divide and enter meiosis, and the latter differentiating into associated structural and endocrine cell types. As is the case for many vertebrate and nonvertebrate organisms, the developmental origin of these two cell types also differs in fish.

In many organisms, the unfertilized egg has been shown to contain specialized granular cytoplasm that is often found in vegetal regions of the egg (Wei and Mahowald, 1994), and cells developing around this material remain undifferentiated and physically separated from most early developmental events. These special cells subsequently develop into primordial germ cells (PGCs), which ultimately form gamete-forming cells within the gonad. The cytoplasmic substances responsible for inducing PGC development have not been fully defined as yet, but appear to be specialized maternally deposited RNAs encoded by maternal genes involved in PGC formation. Maternal-effect sterile mutations in *Drosophila* have allowed identification of genes involved in germ-cell development, one of which is a maternal mRNA encoding a DNA helicase (Olsen et al., 1997; Yoon et al., 1997). Granular cytoplasmic inclusions (nuage) have been identified in PGCs of teleosts (Hogan, 1973; Hamaguchi, 1982), implying that unique genetic products are probably also required in fish to allow differentiation of PGCs from other cell types. Indeed, in zebrafish, DNA-helicase RNA (encoded by the *vas* gene) becomes concentrated along cleavage planes at the two-cell stage of embryogenesis, and remains exclusively associated with four cells (putative PGCs) through development to the 1000-cell stage (Yoon et al., 1997). These *vas*-positive cells undergo few divisions, resulting in approximately 30 cells that become associated with the bilateral germinal ridges at the time of somitogenesis. After embryogenesis, *vas* expression in zebrafish (Yoon et al., 1997) and tilapia (Nagahama, 1999) can be detected only in germ cells in the developing gonad (Fig. 2), suggesting that this protein plays an important role in distinguishing germ cells from somatic cells. Expression of reporter genes from homologous *vasa*-like gene promoters in transgenic rainbow trout and medaka has revealed that PGC-specific expression (Fig. 3) also occurs in these species (Yoshizaki et al., 2000; Tanaka et al., 2001). Other indirect evidence in fish suggesting genetic control of PGC formation and/or maintenance has been presented for rainbow trout, where an inbred family possessed gonadal tissue but completely lacked any germ-cell development (Herman and Kincaid, 1986). Similarly, different genetic lines of carps have been found to possess different numbers of PGCs, which ultimately affects germ cell development and fecundity (Ryazantseva and Sakun, 1980; Bieniarz, 1986).

Once formed, PGCs remain closely associated with endodermal tissues (near yolk sac epithelium in some species) and migrate via the dorsal gut mesentery to the region of presumptive gonad. Gonadal development has been carefully studied in medaka, including the origin and migration of PGCs (Satoh and Egami, 1972; Hamaguchi,

Fig. 1. Summary of endogenous mechanisms and external variables influencing different types of sex differentiation utilized by major orders of fish. Under Gonadal Development, “Both” indicates protogyny and protandry are observed in the same species.

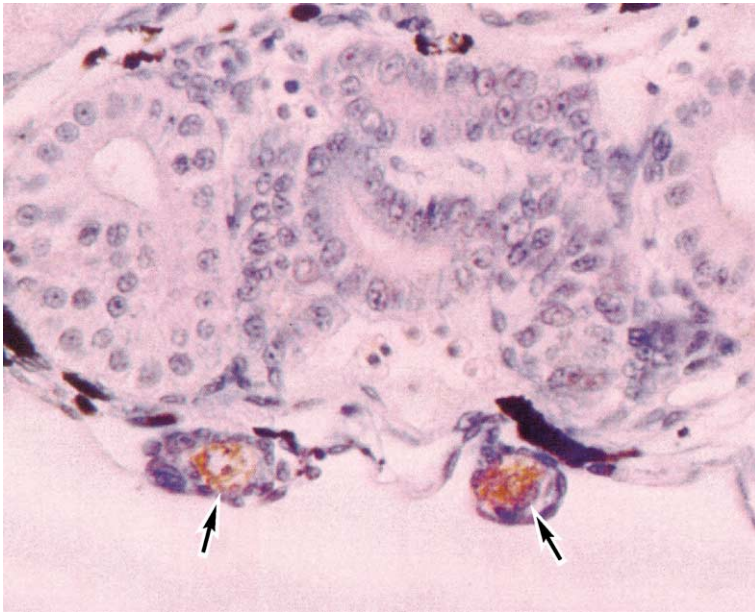


Fig. 2. Vasa protein (arrows) detected by immunohistochemistry in tilapia gonad 3 days posthatching. Vasa is located only in germ cells of both sexes. (Unpublished, provided by T. Kobayashi).

1982, 1992). PGCs have a distinct ultrastructure, and can be first identified in the subendodermal space of the syncytial periblast, from where they subsequently move to the subectodermal space and then mesoderm. PGCs are surrounded by somatomesodermal cells, and passively transferred to the germinal ridge via morphogenetic movements of mesoderm and cell migratory activities (Hamaguchi, 1992). PGCs have been identified in the dorsal mesentery along this route (mesenchymal tissue between the alimentary tract and the dorsal body wall) in *Ditrema temmincki* (Lee and Lee, 1996) and the rockfish *Sebastes schlegeli* (Lee et al., 1996), and between the gut and mesonephric duct in tilapia species (Yoshikawa and Oguri, 1978; Zhu, 1987) and flounder *Paralichthys olivaceus* (Tanaka, 1987). These studies indicate that PGC migration in fish occurs via the dorsal mesentery as in other vertebrates, although some evidence exists in carps that PGC migration can occur via different pathways (Bieniarz, 1986). In most cases, PGCs appear to migrate directly to gonadal tissues, but evidence has also been presented for sturgeon that PGCs can migrate to other organs such as liver (Romanov and Altuf'ev, 1992, 1993). The origin, migration or development of PGCs and other gonadal tissues have been described in several other teleosts, including: *Platyopocilius maculatus* (Wolf, 1931), *Micropterus salmoides* (Johnston, 1951), *Perca fluviatilis* (Mezhnin, 1978; Zelenkov, 1982), *Salvelinus leucomaenis* (Nakamura, 1982), *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (Takashima et al., 1980; Van Den Hurk and Slof, 1981; Lebrun et al., 1982), *Neogobius melanostomus* (Moiseyeva, 1983), *Barbus conchoni* (Timmermans and Taverne, 1989), *Cyprinus carpio* (Par-

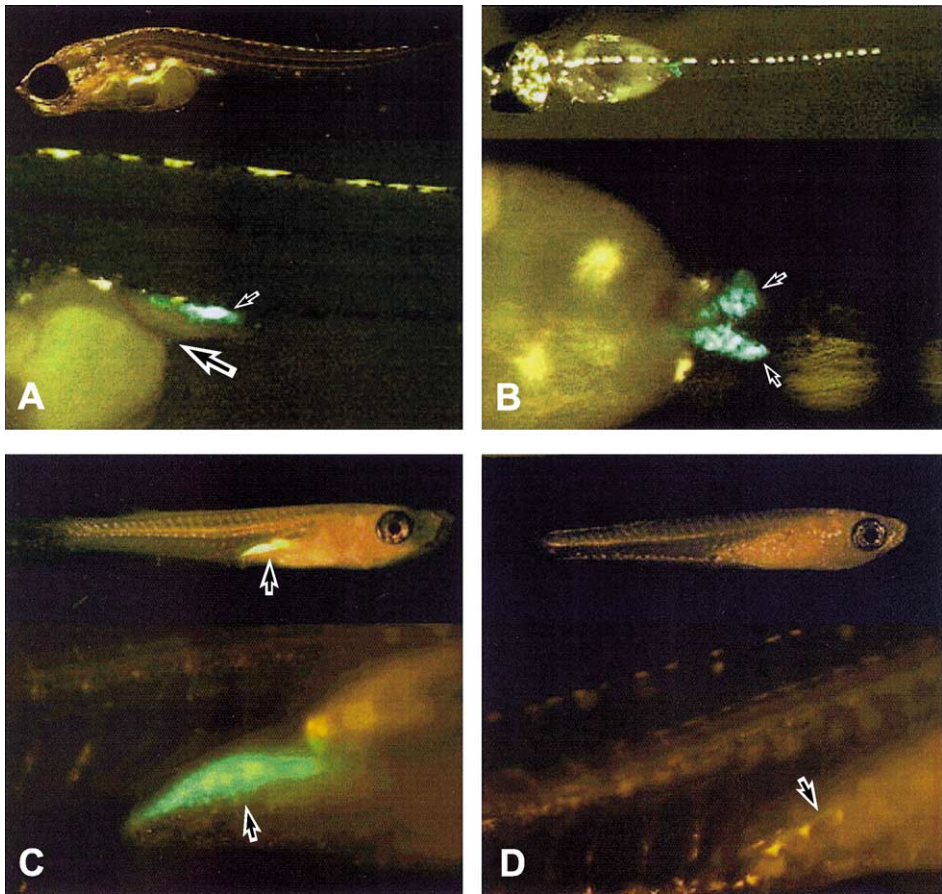


Fig. 3. Localization of GFP expression from a *vasa* promoter in transgenic whole female medaka. *Vasa* promoter activity is found only in germ cells. (A) Lateral, and (B) ventral views. Small arrow indicates location of *vasa* expression in ovary at hatching. Note ectopic germ cell ventral to the ovary on the yolk surface (large arrow). (C) Female and (D) male at 3 weeks of age. Arrows indicate strong *vasa* expression in ovary, whereas expression in males is limited to a thin streak associated with the testis. (From Tanaka et al., 2001).

mentier and Timmermans, 1985; Shelton et al., 1995), *Acipenser gueldenstaedti* (Akhundov and Fedorov, 1990), *Corregonus laveratus* (Dlugosz and Demska-Zakes, 1990), *Esox masquinongy* (Lin et al., 1997), and *Salaria pavo* (Patzner and Kaurin, 1997).

PGCs in undetermined gonads, testis, and ovaries also possess very characteristic cytological features (Bruslé and Bruslé, 1978a,b), and share unique antigenic sites between the sexes that are absent from somatic cells (Parmentier et al., 1984; Parmentier and Timmermans, 1985; Van Winkoop and Timmermans, 1992). These feature are consistent with the idea that PGCs are similar in the two sexes, and that they remain undifferentiated

and undetermined until exposed to hormonal and other influences from the developing gonad, which transforms them into spermatogonia or oogonia (see below).

2.2. Early gonadal development

Somatic cells of the presumptive gonad have an embryological origin distinct from PGCs. The external somatic layer of the developing gonad is derived from the genital ridge epithelium, but some somatic cells are probably also derived by the invasion of mesenchyme (similar to the primitive sex chords in mammals). However, unlike other vertebrates, no clear indication of medullary tissue can be found in the teleost gonad (Guraya, 1994). Prior to differentiation, all somatic cells appear to be derived from a cortex epithelial layer, and are similar in presumptive males and females. Following migration of PGCs into the germinal ridge, cell division occurs to form oogonia and spermatogonia, and differentiation and migration of somatic cells is initiated concomitant with this process. In mammals, differences in cell migration patterns apparent between the sexes are directed by the sex-determination locus, *Sry*, whose action in somatic cells of the early gonad causes active recruitment of mesonephric cells into the gonad in males (Brennan et al., 1998; Koopman, 1999). Subsequently, in the testis, the somatic cells (surrounding PGCs) differentiate into seminiferous tubules and supporting connective tissue, and into cells similar to Leydig and Sertoli cells found in mammals (Da Cruz-Huefling and Da Cruz-Landim, 1984; Pudney and Callard, 1984; Van Vuren and Soley, 1990). In Japanese eels, evidence has been presented indicating that physical proximity between germ and somatic cells is required for functional gonad development (Miura et al., 1996).

For ovarian development, the somatic cells and PGCs begin to differentiate to form follicles, comprised of oocytes surrounded by an inner granulosa and outer thecal layer (Nagahama et al., 1982). In most species, ovarian development in females is first detectable with the proliferation of somatic cells and oogonia and early oocyte differentiation, which is then followed by the formation of the ovarian cavity. Testicular development usually occurs later than ovarian differentiation, some weeks or months after the onset of gonad development in females of some species (Guraya, 1994; Nakamura et al., 1998). In salmonids, at the time of hatching, primordial gonads can be identified as paramedian ridges on the dorsal coelomic wall (Nakamura et al., 1974). PGCs can be identified in the germinal ridge (Nakamura et al., 1974; Foyle, 1993), and a clear distinction between epithelial and stromal cells can be made. However, at this time, histological evidence does not reveal distinction of male or female gonadal cell types, which would indicate that sex determination has occurred and that sex differentiation is proceeding. The first evidence of change from an indifferent gonad in salmonids is observed in females, with the differentiation of oocytes in prophase at 3 weeks posthatching (Nakamura and Nagahama, 1993). Similarly, in coho salmon, differentiation of ovarian tissue has been observed as soon as 27 days posthatching (Piferrer and Donaldson, 1989), whereas differentiation of testicular tissue occurs several weeks later.

Gonads usually develop bilaterally, but may be single or fuse in some fish species (e.g. Rasotto, 1992; Taylor and Burr, 1997); in the mud eel, *Monopterus albus*, it has been reported that only the left gonad develops (Mei et al., 1993).

3. Gonadal differentiation

Gonadal differentiation can take many forms in teleosts, ranging from the familiar case where individuals directly develop and finally possess only testis or ovaries at sexual maturation, to synchronous hermaphroditic species that contain functional male and female gonadal tissues at the same time. Between these extreme types, there is a remarkable array of strategies involving sex reversal and sex ratio bias in populations, arising from frequency or temporal differences in the development of testis or ovary from hermaphroditic gonads. It is beyond the scope of this review to cover in depth the many different forms of sexuality that exist among hermaphroditic fishes. Only selected recent examples are provided for illustration, and the reader is directed to a summary of hermaphroditic fish in Appendix A and other reviews (Yamamoto, 1969; Ross, 1990; Shapiro, 1990) for more information.

3.1. Gonochoristic species

Many teleosts are gonochorists, where individuals develop only as males or females, and remain the same sex throughout their life spans. It is important to note that the final sexual states of maturity achieved in fish may not reflect the initial gonadal developmental pathway taken. For example, gonochorists may develop directly as males or females, or they may develop with gonads that are initially hermaphroditic but that subsequently resolve into only functional ovaries or testis. With respect to mechanisms of sex determination, this latter group may be more like functional hermaphrodites than direct gonochorists, having simply lost the ability to retain both gonadal tissue types through to sexual maturity.

It is apparent that different strategies of early gonadal development are employed among gonochoristic species, and Yamamoto (1969) has summarized historical data that identified two major types. In *differentiated* gonochoristic species, also termed primary gonochorism (Atz, 1964), early gonad development proceeds from an indifferent gonad directly to ovary or testis [e.g. *Oncorhynchus kistutch* (Piferrer and Donaldson, 1989), *Abramis brama* (Talikina, 1995), *E. masquinongy* (Lin et al., 1997), *S. schlegeli* (Lee et al., 1996), *Dicentrarchus labrax* (Blázquez et al., 1998a), and *C. carpio* (Komen et al., 1992b)]. An alternative mode of gonadal development is found in *undifferentiated* species where all individuals initially develop ovarian tissue. In the teleosts *Danio rerio* (zebrafish) and *Barbus tetrazona*, all gonads initially develop as ovaries, but in approximately half of the population, ovarian tissue subsequently degenerates and the gonad is invaded by additional somatic cells (Takahashi, 1977; Takahashi and Shimizu, 1983). Masculinization of the gonad then proceeds to produce an initially intersexual gonad that ultimately resolves into a normal testis.

Some gonochoristic fish species go through a period where all gonads are initially intersexual prior to differentiation into either testis or ovary [e.g. *Cheimerius nufar* (Coetzee, 1983), *Epinephelus striatus* (Sadovy and Colin, 1995), or *Gramma loreto* (Asoh and Shapiro, 1997)]. Such species, termed secondary gonochorists (Atz, 1964), may appear at first examination to be developing as functional hermaphrodites, but a complete analysis of all developmental stages of gonadal development is usually required to discern the exact mode of gonadal developmental (rather than a snapshot of limited stages).

Where most individuals mature as only one sex (indicating the species is primarily gonochoristic), rare individuals can be found that have undergone sex change or remained as intersexes until maturity (Sadovy and Colin, 1995). In European and Japanese eels (*Anguilla anguilla* and *A. japonica*), juvenile individuals initially possess a bipotential intersexual gonad that can develop directly into an ovary or testis (Tesch, 1977; Colombo and Grandi, 1990, 1995, 1996; Beullens et al., 1997), although juvenile hermaphroditism in *A. anguilla* has not been observed in some studies (Bieniarz et al., 1981). In the Agnathan *Eptatretus stouti*, all juveniles are found to contain ovarian development in anterior gonadal regions, whereas the posterior initially remains undifferentiated. Later, the posterior region can develop into a testis, correlated with the regression of anterior ovarian tissue in some cases (Gorbman, 1990). In this hagfish species, and also some lamprey (Yamamoto, 1969), some adult individuals develop with both male and female germ tissue in their gonads. Similarly, juvenile presumptive testis (consisting largely of undifferentiated germ cells) of lamprey *Mordacia mordax* contain ovarian cell types that ultimately undergo atresia as spermatogenesis progresses (Hardisty et al., 1992). This phenomenon has been examined in detail in *Petromyzon marinus* by examining gonadal biopsies from early larvae and subsequently examining gonadal differentiation from the same animal at later stages (Lowartz and Beamish, 2000). Larvae that initially possess ovaries or atypical gonads (with mixtures of oocytes and germ cells) can ultimately resolve into testis by oocyte atresia. In some cases, complete sex reversal was detected, indicating that primary sex differentiation in this species is not definitive. In the normally gonochoristic *Xiphophorus helleri*, hermaphroditism has been observed where three individuals in one strain have been found to switch from female to male (Lodi, 1979). This species possesses a very plastic mode of sex differentiation (see Section 5.5.1), suggesting that sex reversal events in this case may arise by the extreme action of normal regulatory processes.

3.2. Normal hermaphrodites

As mentioned above, gonochorists are species where individuals develop as males or females and do not reverse sex at any time during their lifespan. In contrast, hermaphrodite fish can produce mature male and female gametes at some time in their lives, and thus are a very interesting group among the vertebrates for the study of sex differentiation. Several different types of hermaphrodites have been described and the terminology for the different types has been described in detail (Atz, 1964; Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987). Gonadal types should ideally be classified based on functional criteria (i.e. the types of sexually mature reproductive states that an individual may attain in its lifespan) rather than on gonadal developmental pathways or structures observed at a particular life-history stage (Reinboth, 1975; Chan and Yeung, 1983; Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987). Importantly, hermaphrodites are differentiated from those gonochoristic species that possess both sexes of immature gametes in a single gonad at some point in development, but that ultimately resolve into a single stable sex per individual [termed rudimentary hermaphrodites (Buxton and Garratt, 1990)]. A very large literature exists describing hermaphrodite fish gonad development, behaviour, and mating strategies, and only examples are provided below to illustrate the various forms currently described. Sex reversal in hermaphrodites

may take months to accomplish, or as little as days to weeks in others (Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987).

In functional hermaphrodites, at least some individuals within a population will sexually mature as both sexes in their lifespan. However, our understanding of germ cell development in hermaphrodites is not well understood (Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987), and it is not clear whether sex reversal represents stimulation of development of previously quiescent, but already determined, germ cells of the second sex, or whether new primary (or redefinition of) germ cell determination is occurring. It is possible that hermaphroditism and sex reversal is regulated at the gonadal level, with individuals possessing mixtures of male and female determined germ cells that are stimulated to proliferate and differentiate under differing conditions (see below).

Synchronous hermaphrodites (also termed simultaneous hermaphrodites) produce both male and female gametes at the same time, of which some species are capable of alternating between sperm or egg delivery [e.g. *Serranus* sp. (Pressley, 1981; Petersen, 1990; Oliver, 1991, 1997) or Gobiidae (Cole, 1990; St. Mary, 1998)], and, remarkably, some (*Rivulus marmoratus*) that are even capable of internal self fertilization (Soto et al., 1992; Cole and Noakes, 1997). In sequential hermaphrodites (Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987), individual fish first produce one gamete type, then reverse sex and produce the other type in a subsequent spawning cycle. Sequential hermaphrodites are classified as protandrous if they mature first as males [e.g. *Sparus aurata* (Bruslé Sicard and Fourcault, 1997) or *Amphiprion* sp. (Hattori, 1991; Hattori and Yanagisawa, 1991a; Godwin et al., 1996)], or protogynous if development first occurs as female (e.g. Shapiro, 1980; Shapiro and Rasotto, 1993; Shapiro et al., 1993a; Reinboth and Bruslé Sicard, 1997). Some few species have been characterized that can reverse sex in both directions (see below), and some species display hermaphroditic and gonochoristic subpopulations (e.g. Lodi, 1980). Among protogynous species, monandrous forms have males developing only from fish that had previously matured as female (e.g. Ferreira, 1993; Gillanders, 1995), whereas diandrous species have two sources of males, derived either from immature bisexual stages or by sex reversal of females that have previously sexually matured (Gordo, 1995). The existence of digyny in fish, although rare, has been reported for *Lates calcarifer* (Moore, 1979).

These different forms of hermaphroditism have now been observed in at least 25 families of fish, indicating that these modes of sexual differentiation are widespread among teleosts (see Appendix A for a partial list of hermaphroditic fish species). Stable systems of sex determination that involve hermaphroditism are not anticipated where strong genetic sex-determination systems are functioning (see Section 5). Indeed, among 259 species displaying some form of hermaphroditism (Appendix A), only seven genera and four species have been found to possess sex chromosomes in some populations and/or individuals (compare Appendices A and B). Within each of several families (Gobiidae, Muraenidae, Pomacentridae, Serranidae, and Sparidae), both protandry and protogyny can be found, as well as some gonochoristic and synchronous hermaphroditic species (Buxton and Garratt, 1990; Cody and Bortone, 1992; Fishelson, 1992). In Serranidae, both synchronous and protogynous forms are found, whereas within the Gobiidae, some species are gonochoristic and some are protogynous, and still others capable of switching sex in either direction have been discovered (Robertson and Justines, 1982; Cole, 1990;

Kuwamura et al., 1994; Nakashima et al., 1995; Munday et al., 1998). Similarly, some Japanese hawkfish (*Cirrhilabrus aureus*) individuals are capable of switching sex in both directions (Kobayashi and Suzuki, 1992). For *R. marmoratus*, most individuals are synchronous hermaphrodites, but some fish can switch from being hermaphrodites to males, whereas others can develop as primary males (Soto et al., 1992; Lubinski et al., 1995). This plasticity in sexual differentiation among closely related fish species suggests that different reproductive strategies may be able to evolve quite easily via subtle alterations in normal pathways that regulate the timing and course of testicular and ovarian development in embryos, juveniles, and adults.

The structure of gonads in hermaphrodites can be predominantly ovarian or predominantly testicular at different stages (e.g. Yamamoto, 1969; Zohar et al., 1978; Chan and Yeung, 1983; Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987), or in others, only minor indications of hermaphroditism can be detected histologically [e.g. in both sexes of wrasse *Pseudolabrus gymnotus* (Labridae) (McPherson, 1977)]. Male and female germ cells may be organized in three major ways: Delimited gonads possess male and female germ tissues that are separated by a membrane, undelimited gonads that either have separate male and female tissue not separated by connective tissue, or undelimited gonads possessing interspersed gametes (Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987). Male and female germ tissues can be in very close proximity in some species, such as in the protandric *Amphiprion frenatus*, where developing oocytes are found separated from testicular tissues only by respective somatic cell layers in males (Bruslé Sicard and Reinboth, 1990). In others (e.g. *Rhabdosargus sarba*), discrete separation of male and female tissues by significant amounts of connective tissue is observed (Yeung and Chan, 1987d). In the sequential hermaphroditic Gobiidae genus *Lythrypnus*, five species all possess two spatial points (dorsal and ventral) of testicular development in the ovary during sex change, and this pattern differs from the development of testicular tissue (single point, partitioned, or interspersed) observed in other Gobiidae genera (St. Mary, 1998).

In protogynous species, no indication of testicular tissue may be apparent in young individuals of *Dascyllus reticulatus* (Schwarz and Smith, 1990), but in the wrasse *Thalassoma bifasciatum*, undifferentiated gonads initially develop as ovaries, which, in females, continue that course of differentiation (Shapiro and Rasotto, 1993). However, in primary males of this latter species, ovarian development is suppressed and testis develop, whereas secondary males develop testicular tissue in females after maturity (Shapiro and Rasotto, 1993). Other features often associated with protogynous sex reversal is the presence of a remnant ovarian cavity in the testis, although this can also be detected in some gonochoristic species that develop from a bisexual condition (Sadovy and Colin, 1995) and can thus reflect events occurring in very early gonadal differentiation (i.e. whether the species is differentiated or undifferentiated). The progression from ovary to testis in the protogynous *Thalassoma duperrey* (Morrey et al., 1998) is shown in Fig. 4.

In the protogynous Serranid *Plectropomus maculatus*, sperm ducts do not form initially, but rather sperm is collected in intragonadal sinuses that initially form in the peripheral gonadal musculature (Ferreira, 1993). Similarly, in protandrous species, ducts within new ovarian tissue develop to allow delivery of ova (Godwin, 1994b). In synchronous species, two duct systems are apparent (Abd-el-Aziz and Ramadan, 1990). Duct formation and

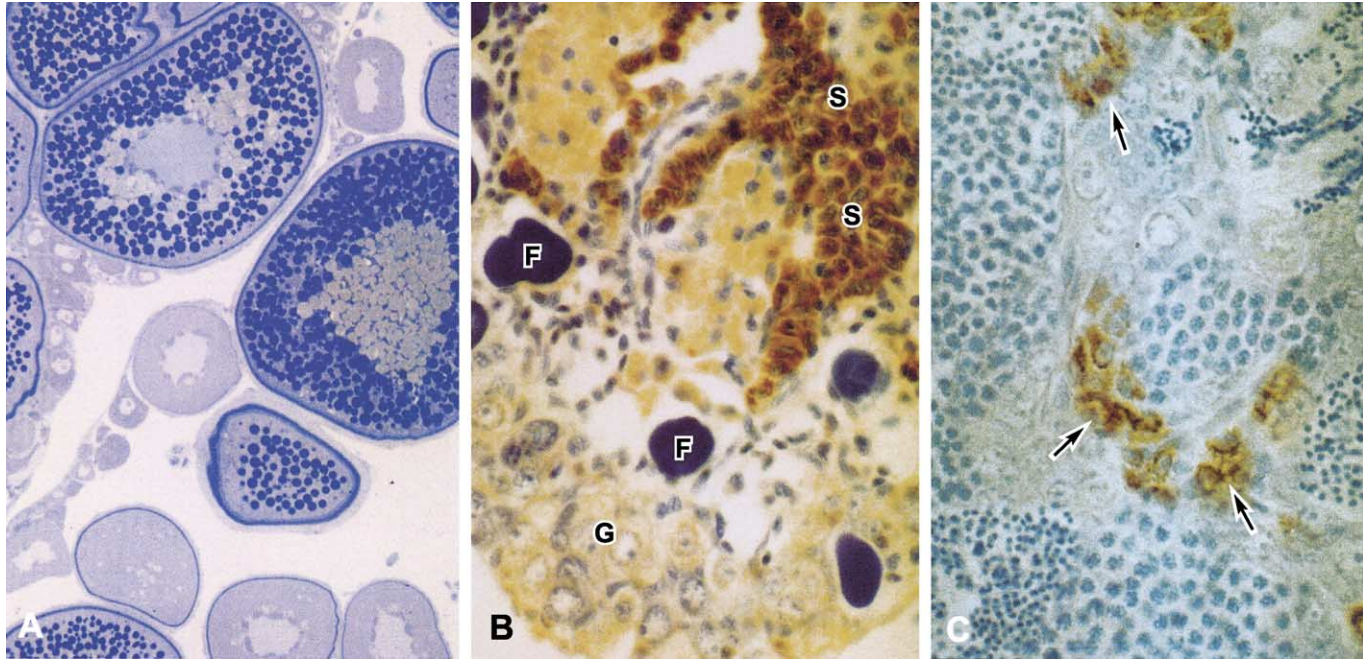


Fig. 4. Photographs of gonads during sex change in the protogynous hermaphrodite wrasse *Thalassoma duperrey*. (A) An ovary before sex change showing vitellogenic follicles. (B) A gonad during sex change showing atretic follicles (F), putative spermatogonia (G) and steroid-producing cells (S). Steroid-producing cells are positive to P450 cholesterol side chain cleavage enzyme (P450scc) immunostaining. (C) A testis after sex change showing germ cells during various stages of spermatogenesis and P450scc positive steroid-producing cells (Leydig cells) (arrows). (Morrey et al., 1998).

variations seen in hermaphrodites have been described in detail (Sadovy and Shapiro, 1987).

Hermaphroditism and sex change has evolved to provide individual members of fish populations with maximum reproductive output (e.g. by increasing numbers or quality of eggs produced, enhancing competitive fertilization by increasing milt volume or controlling harems, or enhancing survival of progeny under parental care). The diversity of sex change (Fig. 1) observed among different fish at all phylogenetic levels is testimony to the large number of habitats they utilize, the diversity of life histories employed, and the complexity of their demographic interactions.

3.3. Abnormal hermaphrodites and intersexes

In gonochoristic species, which normally only possess either ovarian or testicular tissue in their gonads, examples of hermaphroditism or spontaneous sex reversal are very rare (Atz, 1964). Such exceptional intersex fish, termed abnormal hermaphrodites (Atz, 1964) or intersexes (Yamamoto, 1969), are often observed by chance in field or laboratory surveys where gonad developmental stage or sex ratio is being examined, and thus probably provide an unbiased minimum approximation for the spontaneous frequency of hermaphroditism in these populations. The phenotypes of abnormal hermaphrodites range from mixed male and female gonadal tissue represented by a very few cells of one type among an otherwise complete gonad of the opposite sex to very large portions of the gonad being allocated to testis and to ovary. Intersexes have been discovered at stages prior to sexual maturity, or in some cases, when functional gametes of both sexes are being produced.

More than 100 historical examples of abnormal hermaphroditism have been reported (see Atz, 1964; Dawson and Heal, 1977; Honma, 1980). More recently, single specimens of hermaphrodites have been identified in several other teleosts: *P. fluviatilis*, with both functional sperm and developing eggs (Jellyman, 1976); *Salvelinus alpinus*, with an ovarian lobe in a male (Fraser, 1997); *Menidia beryllina*, where 10% of the gonad was testis in a female (Yan, 1984); *Micropogonias furneri*, with testicular structures and vitellogenic oocytes in what otherwise appeared to be an ovary (Macchi and Christiansen, 1994); *Heterandria formosa*, with a gonad showing signs of vitellogenic oocytes and spermatozoa, with the ovarian regions dominant (Riehl, 1991); *Fundulus diaphanus*, with both mature sperm and eggs present (Porter and Fivizzani, 1983); *Sardinops sagax*, with both ova and spermatocytes (Herrera et al., 1991); *Salmo trutta*, producing functional eggs and sperm (O'Farrell and Pierce, 1989); and *Oncorhynchus keta*, where four individuals have been identified that contain testicular and ovarian tissue (Hikita and Hashimoto, 1978; Honma, 1980; Devlin, unpublished observations). Similarly, in a normally gonochoristic cartilaginous fish, *Centroscyllium fabricii*, 4 among 2600 individuals examined contained both ovary and testis (Yano, 1995).

Histological evidence for hermaphroditism in juveniles has been found in *Odontesthes bonariensis*, where a few oocytes at the diplotene stage have been identified in a testis (Strüssmann et al., 1996a), and an intersex condition has also been identified in the roach, *Rutilus rutilus*. Intersexes were identified at very low (0.02) frequency in wild populations (Schultz, 1996), and in the same species, a testis had some oocytes under

microscopic examination (Jafri and Ensor, 1979). Similarly, oocytes (termed testis–ova) are apparent in the testis of *Tilapia zillii* (Yoshikawa and Oguri, 1978), *Channa punctatus* (Srivastava and Singh, 1989) and *D. labrax* (Roblin and Bruslé, 1983), but these are usually smaller than the ova found within regular ovaries, and caution is required in definitively identifying such cells as true oocytes (see Yamamoto, 1969 for discussion and other examples).

The causes of these examples of rare abnormal hermaphroditism are unknown. Environmental effects (e.g. temperature or xenobiotics, see Section 6) in species with labile sex-determination mechanisms may be responsible for some cases of sexual ambiguity, or normal variances that exist in endogenous sex-determination physiology may be the cause (e.g. variable hormone production or reception). For example, altering sex-steroid levels in salmonids at the time of sex determination can cause development of hermaphroditic individuals with functional sperm and ova (Jalabert et al., 1975; Chevassus et al., 1988). Alternatively, germline mutations may occasionally occur in populations that alter sex-determination processes in descendants (e.g. Komen et al., 1992a). Genetically mosaic individuals may also arise through mutations occurring in cells during development, altering the generation or interpretation of sex-determination signals for a subset of cells within the gonad. In this regard, two separate examples of hermaphrodite chum salmon have been observed (unpublished observations), in one case the genetic sex was male based on the use of Y-chromosomal DNA markers (see Section 5.4.3). In this hermaphrodite, gametes collected from the feminized portion of the gonad segregated the sex-reversing mutation to the next generation.

Although these examples of abnormal hermaphroditism occur infrequently in populations, they may provide opportunities for species to explore new modes of sex differentiation, and, for the investigator, can allow insight into the evolutionary mechanisms that modify and/or stabilize these processes.

3.4. Stability of sex determination in gonochorists

In mammalian systems, once sex has been determined, gonadal differentiation usually proceeds down a single developmental pathway to yield fully differentiated testes or ovaries (Hawkins, 1994; Capel, 1998). In fish, there are many exceptions to this rule, where development of the gonad may be influenced by fluctuations in intrinsic factors such as growth or behaviour, or by extrinsic environmental factors such as temperature, endocrine hormones or pollution (see Sections 3.2 and 6). In gonochoristic species, many influences on gonadal function occurring after sex determination are associated with impairment of reproduction (see Sections 6.1 and 6.4). For example, treatments of rainbow trout with testosterone or estrogen after sex differentiation has been initiated can arrest gametogenesis, causing oogenesis to be arrested in females and regression of the testis in males (Billard et al., 1982). Similarly, dietary treatment of female rainbow trout with 17 α -methyltestosterone after the normal time of sex determination can induce testicular development, but this effect was transitory, and masculinization effects were reduced when the fish were examined 6 months later (Olito and Brock, 1991).

In other cases, definitive evidence has been obtained that gonadal differentiation can be reversed, particularly in hermaphroditic species, but also in gonochorists. However, for

normal hermaphrodites, it is unclear whether sex reversal occurs by redetermination of germ and associated cells, or whether replacement of one gonad cell type by another occurs by deterioration and proliferation of respective existing previously determined primordia (see below). In gonochoristic common carp possessing differentiated ovaries, treatment with 17α -methyltestosterone can cause regression of ovarian tissue, and induction of testes, which produce functional, genetically female sperm (Gomelsky, 1985). Estradiol treatment of gonadally undifferentiated eels (*A. anguilla*) causes feminization, as is observed for many species (see Section 6.1). However, when treatment was delayed until after morphological differentiation of testis had occurred (normally 95% male in this strain), sex reversal could still occur and result in 44% females (Andersen et al., 1996). Similar effects are observed with barfin flounder *Verasper moseri*, where treatment with high doses of estradiol can feminize males even after testicular development had been initiated (Mori et al., 1995), and exposure of mature male carp to the endocrine disrupter 4-*tert*-pentylphenol or estradiol can result in degeneration of the testis, and the latter compound can induce an ovotestis (Gimeno et al., 1998b).

In sex-reversing fish, the protogynous grouper *Epinephelus suillus* can be precociously masculinized by 17α -methyltestosterone treatment, but such fish revert back to females upon withdrawal of the hormone, and can actually begin to produce ova again (Tan-Fermin, 1992). In the protandrous black porgy, *Acanthopagrus schlegeli*, estradiol treatment can, at high doses, induce regression of testicular tissue and stimulate development of ovarian tissue (Chang et al., 1995a,c). Unlike for gonochoristic species, interpretation of these experiments with sex-changing fish is difficult because of their normal process of gonadal development. However, steroid treatments certainly can influence the rate or frequency of this natural sex-changing process in hermaphrodites (see Section 4.8).

Of considerable interest is the source of cells involved in the redifferentiation of gonads. It is not clear whether individual differentiated cells (spermatogonia or oogonia) are able to switch developmental fates during sex reversal, or whether undetermined germ cells within the gonad are recruited to initiate a new course of differentiation. Classical experiments in *Betta splendens* (Noble and Kumpf, 1937 and Kaiser and Schmidt, 1951 described in Yamamoto, 1969; more recently reexamined by Lowe and Larkin, 1975) showed that over 40% of females that had been ovariectomized could sex-reverse into functional males. These experiments indicate that redetermination and redevelopment of the gonad from residual tissue (gonadal duct) can proceed in a direction opposite to the original genetic sex. In genetically female goldfish, ovariectomy of fish normally results in sterilization, but treatment with 11-ketotestosterone can induce testicular development, again indicating that sexual differentiation remains labile, perhaps throughout the life of the animal (Kobayashi et al., 1991). Support for this concept also comes from the observation that PGCs can be found in differentiated ovaries, testes, and ovatestes of *Liza aurata*, *Serranus hepatus*, *Coris julis* (Bruslé, 1988) and *Xiphophorus* sp. (Flores and Burns, 1993). The presence of PGCs at many stages of gonadogenesis suggests that potential for sex reversal and redifferentiation may be maintained throughout the reproductive lifespan of many fish.

4. Endocrine and molecular control of sex differentiation

The extraordinary migration of PGCs from yolk-sac endoderm to within the gonadal anlagen indicates that even early events associated with sex determination and gonadogenesis require interactions among cell types. Subsequent growth and differentiation of the gonad also involves communication with nonadjacent tissues via endocrine controls that are distinct for the two sexual phenotypes. Endocrine control of sex differentiation involves a complex interplay between the brain and gonad through the production of pituitary-derived gonadotropins and steroids produced in the gonad and brain (Bieniarz and Epler, 1992; Nagahama, 1994). Sex steroids have local, direct effects on germ-cell development, but also act as endocrine hormones to influence other cell types and organs involved in sex differentiation. This multilevel control is very complex, and involves a multitude of biochemical, neurological, and physiological pathways to provide the necessary plasticity for gonadal development to proceed in context with intrinsic and environmental factors. This complexity also provides many levels at which reproduction can be disrupted (see Section 6).

Although nonsteroidal hormones are synthesized in, or act on, gonadal tissues (e.g. somatotropins and insulin-like growth factors, (Van der Kraak et al., 1990; Duan et al., 1993; Kagawa et al., 1995; Maestro et al., 1995; Le Gac et al., 1996), the most intensively investigated hormones are the sex steroids. Estradiol-17 β is found at much higher levels in females than males, and is believed to be the major sex steroid responsible for inducing and maintaining ovarian development (Yamamoto, 1969). Both testosterone and 11-ketotestosterone are found in males, the latter being the major androgen responsible for testicular development (Jiang et al., 1996; Miura et al., 1996; Nagahama, 1999). In addition, maturation steroids such as 17 α , 20 β -dihydroxy-4-pregnen-3-one (17 α , 20 β -DP), as well as other direct precursors of these hormones (from pregnenolone) have been studied in fish. A variety of nonclassical sex steroids are also produced in fish gonads (Kime, 1993).

4.1. Enzymology of steroid production in fish

As in other vertebrates, a complex series of enzymes are responsible for the biosynthesis of sex steroids in fish (Nagahama, 1994). Specific genes involved in steroid biosynthesis are differentially expressed in the somatic cells of testis and ovary (Omura and Morohashi, 1995; Nakamura et al., 1998), which results in the production of an array of sex steroids. The pathway initiates with the synthesis of the steroid precursor pregnenolone via side-chain-cleavage of cholesterol by *P450_{scc}*, which is followed by the production of progesterone, 17 α -hydroxypregnenolone, 17 α -hydroxyprogesterone, dehydroepiandrosterone, and androstenedione occurring via 17 α -hydroxylase and C17, 20 lyase activities in combination with 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (Nagahama, 1994, 1999). In medaka ovary (Kobayashi et al., 1996a), progesterone is not detected at any stage of maturation, indicating that conversion of pregnenolone to 17 α -hydroxypregnenolone is preferred. Estradiol's precursor testosterone can be produced both from androstenedione with 17 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase activity, or from dehydroepiandrosterone and 5-androsten-3 β , 17 β -diol via 17 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase and 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase activities. Results indicate that the former pathway (via

17 α -hydroxyprogesterone) is primarily utilized in vitellogenic ovaries (Kobayashi et al., 1996a).

Testicular tissues of common carp cultured *in vitro* convert pregnenolone and androstenedione primarily to 11 β -hydroxyandrostenedione, whereas *in vivo*, the dominant circulating androgen is 11-ketotestosterone (Cavaco et al., 1997). These results imply that further conversion of 11 β -hydroxyandrostenedione to 11-ketotestosterone by 11 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase and 17 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase may occur, at least in part, in nontesticular tissues such as blood (Schulz, 1986; Schulz and Bluem, 1991). Metabolism of testosterone and androstenedione has also been shown in stickleback kidney tissue (Borg et al., 1992). In ovary, thecal steroids (mainly testosterone), are made available to granulosa cells (see below) where the enzyme aromatase (*P450aro*) is expressed, resulting in the conversion of testosterone to estradiol-17 β , the latter steroid being necessary for oocyte growth.

Molecular analyses of steroid enzymes from fish are now underway. Genes or cDNAs have been cloned for trout *P450scc* (Takahashi et al., 1992), trout 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (Sakai et al., 1994), trout and dogfish *P450c17* (Tanaka et al., 1991a; Trant, 1995), eel 11 β -hydroxylase (Jiang et al., 1996), trout 20 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (Guan et al., 1999), and aromatase from trout (Tanaka et al., 1991b), tilapia (Chang et al., 1997), zebrafish (Callard and Tchoudakova, 1997), and medaka (Tanaka et al., 1995; Fukada et al., 1996; Kobayashi et al., 1996b). Multiple aromatase genes have been identified in goldfish and zebrafish (Callard and Tchoudakova, 1997), and sequence comparisons have revealed that the forms of aromatase expressed in brain and ovary are distinct *P450* enzymes in goldfish, with approximately 62% similarity at the protein level (Tchoudakova and Callard, 1998). Although it is not yet known whether the catalytic functions of these enzymes differ in a significant way, the brain form of aromatase is expressed at high levels in neural tissue and low levels in ovary, whereas the ovarian form appears to be expressed only in ovary (Tchoudakova and Callard, 1998), suggesting important differences in sex steroid production that may influence the regulation of sex differentiation. Recently, the brain form of aromatase has been shown to be expressed at two distinct levels among individual zebrafish embryos around the time of sex determination (Trant et al., 2001), suggesting a possible role for of this gene in controlling sex differentiation, or that it responds differentially to gonadal development occurring in males and females.

4.2. *Cell types involved in sex steroid production*

The differentiation of somatic cells in testis and ovary is both morphological and functional. The major roles of these somatic cells are to nourish developing germ tissue and to synthesize and provide the correct hormonal milieu to support either oocyte or spermatocyte development. In testis, interstitial cells analogous to Leydig cells are the major site of androgen synthesis, whereas in ovaries, the two somatic cell layers of the follicle appear to play separate roles in steroid biosynthesis (Hoar and Nagahama, 1978; Nagahama et al., 1982). The ovarian thecal layer contains all enzymes necessary for the production of testosterone and other precursor androgens, whereas the granulosa layer does not synthesize steroids *de novo*, but is capable of converting testosterone to estrogen via the enzyme aromatase (Nagahama, 1997). Thus, synthesis of estradiol is a two-cell

process (involving both thecal and granulosa cells), a factor which is important for the control of sex-steroid production during sexual maturation (see Section 4.6) (Nagahama and Yamashita, 1988). Some exceptions to this organization have been noted: In common carp, interstitial cells of the ovary also seem to be the main source of androgen production (Epler et al., 1997), and in *Fundulus heteroclitus*, granulosa cells have been shown to synthesize testosterone (Petrino et al., 1989).

Immunohistochemistry has revealed that steroidal enzymes P450_{scc}, P450_{c17}, 11 β -hydroxylase, and 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (see Section 4.1) are found in Leydig cells, but not in germ or Sertoli cells, of mature and immature trout testes (Kobayashi et al., 1998; Morrey et al., 1998; Nagahama, 1999). These results strongly indicate that Leydig cells are the major site of steroid synthesis in fish testis. Although aromatase is not usually detectable in testicular tissue, evidence does exist for estradiol production during some stages of testicular development (Pasmanik and Callard, 1988a), suggesting that estrogen synthesis is required in both sexes and that quantitative rather than qualitative differences in sex steroid profiles may be most critical for sex determination. Aromatase activity has been localized in steroid producing cells of the immature ovary by in situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry (Fig. 5).

Sex-steroid production in the gonad seems to require both viable germ cells and functional somatic cells. Thus, in triploid females (which have disrupted germ cells), reduced sex-steroid production and improper development of somatic tissues occurs (Piferrer et al., 1994a; Hussain et al., 1996), whereas in triploid males, gametogenesis still occurs and sex steroid production is normal (Kobayashi et al., 1993b). These observations imply that two-way communication between germ cells and somatic tissues is required for normal steroidogenesis and gonadal development.

Evidence also exists for the local production or conversion of sex steroids in brain cells, implying an important role in the control of gonadal development (Callard et al., 1982). The enzyme aromatase, which is responsible for estradiol synthesis, has been identified in brain (primarily in preoptic–anterior hypothalamic areas) and pituitary tissues (Pasmanik and Callard, 1988a), primarily in gonadotrophs (Melamed et al., 1999). Brain aromatase activity is inducible by in vivo treatment with testosterone and estradiol, and is correlated with seasonal changes in gonadal activity and growth in goldfish (Pasmanik and Callard, 1988a; Pasmanik et al., 1988), suggesting that this enzyme may mediate feedback control of gonadally produced sex steroids to brain (see Section 4.7). Indeed, conversion of androgens (androstenedione) to estrone and estradiol has been observed in *Gasterosteus aculeatus* brains, particularly in the hypothalamus, consistent with a role in controlling the secretion of gonadotropin (Borg et al., 1987). Induction of aromatase activity in the hypothalamus does not occur with a nonaromatizable androgen (e.g. 17 α , methyl-dihydrotestosterone) (Pasmanik et al., 1988), suggesting that aromatase control is not directly affected by androgens but is mediated by a positive-feedback mechanism involving gonadal estrogen either directly or indirectly by conversion from testosterone. Although the development of the testis does not require nongonadal estrogen (Miura et al., 1996), the presence of aromatase activity and estrogen production in testis (Pasmanik and Callard, 1988a) may be utilized in males to mediate feedback interactions between the gonad and brain. Consistent with a functional role for brain estrogens, estradiol has also been found to concentrate in the brain in oyster toadfish, *Opsanus tau* (Fine et al., 1990),

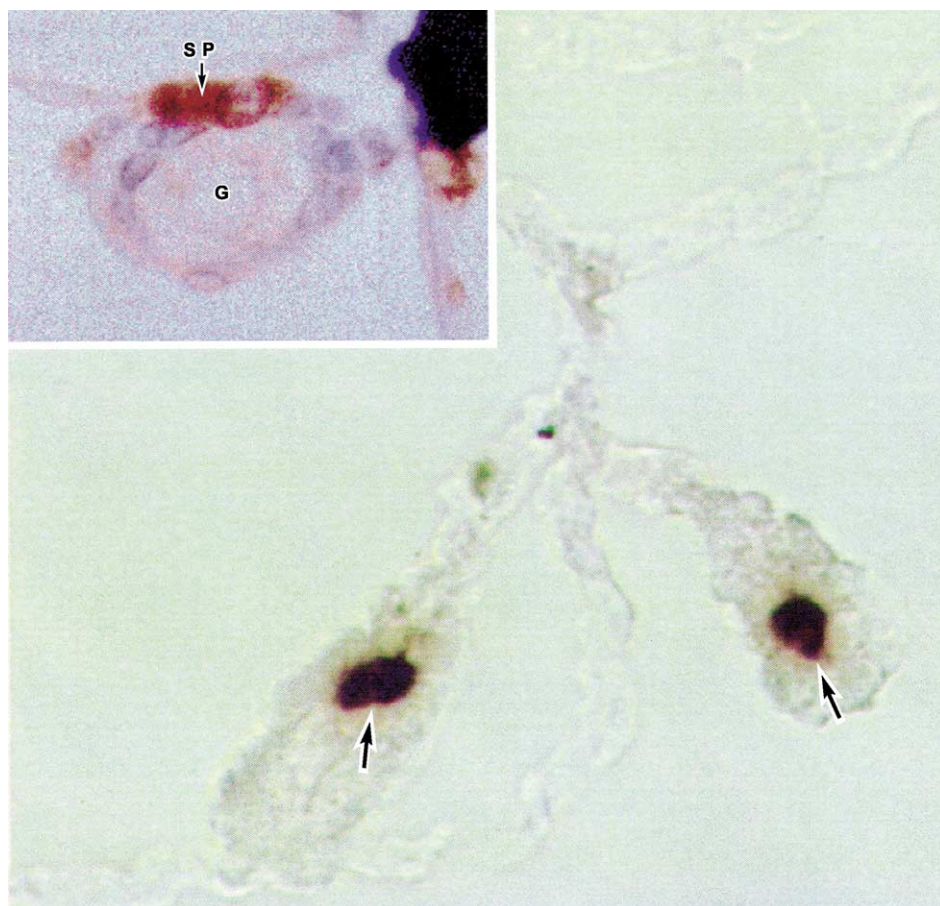


Fig. 5. In situ and protein (inset) localization of aromatase mRNA in gonad of *Oreochromis niloticus* XX female 10 days posthatching. Expression is female-specific and is limited to steroid-producing cells (arrows). G, germ cell. (Unpublished, T. Kobayashi).

and receptors for estrogens have also been identified in fish brain tissue (Pakdel et al., 1990; Begay et al., 1994).

4.3. Ontogenesis of steroid production in fish

It is currently unknown where sex-determination mechanisms intervene in gonadal developmental pathways to initiate alternate courses of steroid production and differentiation. In mammalian systems, the absence of activity from the *Sry* gene on the Y chromosome causes gonadal differentiation to proceed towards a female mode of development, and presence of *Sry* function in gonadal somatic cells (Sertoli cell precursors) induces testicular development (Koopman et al., 1991; Capel, 1998; Koopman, 1999). The former result suggests that biochemical pathways leading to female

development can occur independent of specific actions from the sex-determination gene, and will occur as the default condition in the absence of “interfering” gene activities (see Section 5).

The developmental pathway leading to steroid production in gonadal somatic cells undoubtedly requires complex regulation of a multitude of genes (Swain and Lovell-Badge, 1997) involved in the initial differentiation of steroid-producing cells. It is likely that sex-determination mechanisms do not initiate the process of sex-cell differentiation by acting on totipotent cells, but rather interact at intermediate steps to direct alternate differentiation of gonadal cells and steroid production. Since intracellular gene regulatory events are required to allow differential production of steroids, it is unlikely that the steroids themselves or associated enzymes are the primary and initial factors involved in the determination of sex (see Yamamoto, 1969). Indeed, for medaka, the use of aromatase inhibitors and antiestrogens has revealed that ovary development may occur independent of the action of estrogen (Kawahara and Yamashita, 2000). Nevertheless, steroid production is very closely correlated with very early steps of gonadal differentiation, and can influence long-term decisions regarding sex determination (see Section 6.1). Similarly, if steroid-synthesizing capability is interfered with, sex determination can be disrupted: For example, inhibition of estradiol synthesis in early development using inhibitors of the enzyme aromatase can cause masculinization of coho salmon, rainbow trout, Japanese flounder, and tilapia (Piferrer et al., 1994c; Guiguen et al., 1999; Almeida-Toledo et al., 2000a; Kitano et al., 2000; Afonso et al., 2001).

If steroids are critical for directing initial sex differentiation rather than being a consequence of it, then the appearance of steroid-producing cells and differences in steroid production between the sexes should be apparent prior to morphological differentiation of the gonad (Nakamura et al., 1998). In early development of *Xiphophorus*, an enzyme (3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase) responsible for isomerization and dehydrogenation of steroid precursors has been detected in primitive male and female gonads (Schreibman et al., 1982), indicating that steroid production is probably occurring very early in gonadal differentiation. In *Odontesthes bonariensis*, differentiation of somatic and germinal cells appears to occur simultaneously in both gonad types (Strüssmann et al., 1996a), although testicular development is delayed relative to that of the ovary. Similarly, differentiation of steroid-producing cells in the ovary of amago salmon (Nakamura and Nagahama, 1993) and tilapia (Nakamura and Nagahama, 1985) occurred concomitantly with the onset of stromal aggregation, formation of the ovarian cavity, and meiotic activity of oocytes. Immunohistochemistry has shown that steroidal enzymes P450_{scc}, P450_{c17}, and 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase are found at high levels in female gonadal anlagen of tilapia at 10 days posthatch, but was only seen weakly in males and not until 30 days posthatching. Further, the enzyme aromatase was only detected in ovaries (Kobayashi et al., 1998; Nagahama, 1999). In mice, the presence of mRNAs for steroidogenic enzymes including aromatase are present in the fetal gonad before any histological evidence of sex differentiation is apparent (Greco and Payne, 1994). In zebrafish, aromatase mRNA is detectable early in development and levels of the brain form is distributed bimodally among individuals (see above), suggesting an important role for this gene in sex differentiation (Trant et al., 2001).

Other examples indicate that germ and somatic cells may not differentiate synchronously: In medaka, germ-cell differentiation appears to occur prior to that of steroid-producing cells (Satoh, 1974), whereas in sterlet *Acipenser ruthinus*, secretory cells found in the indifferent gonad have steroid-synthesizing structure (Fedorov et al., 1990). In poeciliid species, differentiation of somatic tissues is apparent prior to detectable germ cell differentiation, allowing very early ability to distinguish testis and ovary (Kramer and Kallman, 1985). Since sex-steroid production could be occurring at low levels in the gonad prior to full cytological differentiation of steroid-producing cells, it is difficult to exactly determine the chronology of these events from histological investigations. However, these observations clearly indicate that if steroid production is not responsible for directing early sex differentiation, then the two events are otherwise very closely coordinated.

Testosterone and estradiol levels are normally quite high in fish eggs, arising maternally from the significant levels of sex steroids present in the maturing female (Rothbard et al., 1987; Feist et al., 1990). These egg steroid levels drop during early development, such that by the time sex-determination events are initiated, steroids are at low or undetectable levels that would not override sex determination influences intrinsic to the developing individual. Following early embryogenesis, sex steroids begin to be synthesized endogenously: In tilapia, a bimodal distribution of testosterone levels is observed among individuals at a time (7 weeks postfertilization) when clear histological evidence indicates that sex determination has occurred (i.e. gonadal development has proceeded towards ovarian differentiation in females, or has remained relatively undifferentiated in males) (Rothbard et al., 1987). This bimodality was not detected with estradiol levels, but the levels of testosterone in all-male populations were similar to those found in the low mode of the bisexual population, indicating that female gonads are producing more testosterone than male gonads at 7 weeks. Importantly, these results also demonstrate that the presence of testosterone at higher levels than estradiol does not necessarily result in male development, consistent with testosterone being a very weak androgen in teleosts (Piferrer et al., 1993). The mRNA for 11 β -hydroxylase in rainbow trout is found at approximately 100-fold higher levels in testis than ovaries, and in early development is detectable in male gonads prior to testicular differentiation (Liu et al., 2000). The lack of expression of 11 β -hydroxylase in females at this time indicates an important role for this enzyme and 11-ketotestosterone in early sex differentiation events in trout.

In salmonids, no significant bimodality of sex-steroid profiles was observed among individual coho salmon larvae (Feist et al., 1990). However, production of testosterone from larval gonadal-tissue explants was higher from all-male than all-female rainbow trout populations (Fitzpatrick et al., 1993). These differences were apparent 2 weeks before the initiation of feeding, at a time prior to significant histological differentiation of the gonads. Estradiol levels could not be detected until much later, but ultimately were higher in the all-female groups. Fluctuating levels and correlations between glucuronide-conjugated and free steroids have also been observed in early trout development (Yeoh et al., 1996), and 17 β , hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase activity (see Section 4.1) detected in early arctic char embryos indicates that steroid metabolism could also be playing an important role modulating hormone levels during early sex determination and differentiation (Khan et al., 1997).

4.4. Receptor-mediated action of sex steroids

Steroid action is mediated by binding to specific receptors. The estrogen receptor can be found in a variety of gonadal and other tissues, including liver, ovary, heart, spleen, muscle, and brain (Smith and Thomas, 1990). Estrogen receptor levels are themselves influenced by estrogens (Mommmsen and Lazier, 1986), mediated by effects on estrogen receptor gene expression (MacKay et al., 1996; Pakdel et al., 1997). Such positive control of estrogen receptors by estrogen ensures that sufficient receptor is available in stimulated cell types to respond to the full degree of estrogen presentation.

Estrogen receptors are DNA-binding proteins that influence gene expression (e.g. *Vitellogenin*, see Section 4.5) (Lazier et al., 1985), but may also function via cell-surface pathways (Kelly et al., 1999). Different genes have distinct thresholds of estrogen concentrations they will respond to: for example in cultured trout hepatocytes, the estrogen receptor gene is induced at a lower level of estradiol-17 β than is the vitellogenin gene (Flouriot et al., 1996). Estrogen receptor concentrations also fluctuate in different tissues, depending on the physiological state of the animal: For example, livers from previtellogenic females have very much lower levels of estrogen receptor than vitellogenic individuals (Smith and Thomas, 1990). Estrogen receptor mRNA has also been detected in the pituitary and hypothalamus in trout (Pakdel et al., 1990), which may mediate steroidal control of GnRH and GtH secretion (see Section 4.7). Similarly, estrogen receptors are also found in the pineal gland (Begay et al., 1994), and since estrogens have been shown to affect the release of melatonin, endocrine-disrupting xenobiotics could potentially influence seasonal control of spawning by this mechanism. Recently, a second form of estrogen receptor has been cloned from tilapia (Chang et al., 1999b), catfish (Xia et al., 1999) and goldfish (Tchoudakova et al., 1999), indicating that fish possess two estrogen receptors typical of the α and β forms found in higher vertebrates. In tilapia, while both genes are expressed in early male and female gonads at 10–15 days posthatch (Nagahama, 1999), they display different expression patterns suggesting important roles in regulating early sex differentiation.

Proteins capable of binding androgens have been identified in testicular tissues of fish (Foucher and Le Gac, 1989). Androgen receptors are found in gonadal tissues in both Agnatha and Osteichthyes, suggesting that this protein has played an important role in sex steroid function throughout the evolution of the fishes (Fitzpatrick et al., 1995). Androgen receptors have also been found in the cytosol of ovaries (Fitzpatrick et al., 1994), providing a plausible mechanism by which androgen-mediated sex reversal could be occurring in female gonads of fish (see Section 6.1). Similarly, the presence of androgen receptors in ovarian tissues provides a direct pathway by which environmental androgens could cause reproductive impairment. Recently, multiple forms of androgen receptors have been cloned from trout and eel (Ikeuchi et al., 1999; Takeo and Yamashita, 1999; Todo et al., 1999).

4.5. Hormonal control of vitellogenesis

Estradiol acts at the level of the gonad to stimulate oocyte development, but also acts indirectly by controlling the expression of genes in nongonadal tissues that are necessary

for oocyte growth. For example, major proteins induced by estradiol in liver include Choriogenin H required for the formation of egg chorion (Murata et al., 1997), and vitellogenin, a phospholipoprotein complex required for oocyte growth and used for larval energy supplies. These proteins are primarily produced from liver cells in females, and are transported to the ovary via blood. Being produced at much higher levels in females than males, vitellogenin can provide a convenient assay (Le Bail and Breton, 1981; Gordon et al., 1984; Norberg and Haux, 1988; Kwon et al., 1990; Matsubara and Sawano, 1992; Kanamori et al., 1993; Perez and Callard, 1993; Miura et al., 1994; Heppel et al., 1995a,b; Mourot and Le Bail, 1995; Tyler et al., 1996; Bon et al., 1997; Takemura and Oka, 1998) for determining phenotypic sex of fish or for evaluating potential feminizing effects arising from exposure to pollution (see also Section 6.4).

Estrogens have been shown to stimulate vitellogenin protein or mRNA in several teleost species, both in vivo and in in vitro cultures of hepatocytes (Maitre et al., 1985; Olin and Von Der Decken, 1987; Le Guellec et al., 1988; Kwon et al., 1993; Kim et al., 1997b). A small amount of vitellogenin synthesis can also be detected in testis in response to estrogen treatment in *Oreochromis aureus* (Ding et al., 1993). The estrogen receptor blocking agent tamoxifen can reduce hepatic vitellogenin mRNA levels, despite increased circulating estradiol levels arising from blockage of feedback inhibition of steroid synthesis (Peyon et al., 1997). This finding is consistent with vitellogenin gene expression occurring in response to binding of estrogen receptors with estrogen-response elements associated with regulatory regions of the vitellogenin gene promoter. Vitellogenin gene expression is stimulated over a wide range of estrogen concentrations, much above that needed to induce maximal levels of estrogen receptor gene expression (Lazier et al., 1996). A number of xenoestrogens that mimic the action of estrogens have also been shown to induce vitellogenin production (Sumpter and Jobling, 1995), forming the basis of screening assays for effects of environmental pollutants on reproduction in fish (see Section 6.4).

Androgens have also been shown to induce vitellogenin production in cultured trout and eel hepatocytes (Peyon et al., 1997; Mori et al., 1998), and this effect is blocked with tamoxifen, indicating stimulation is occurring through the estrogen receptor. Interestingly, the in vivo effects of androgens are different: vitellogenin synthesis was not affected by androgens in vivo in catfish (Sundararaj and Nath, 1981) or eels (Peyon et al., 1997), whereas treatments of tilapia with 17 α -methyltestosterone does dramatically reduce circulating vitellogenin protein and hepatic vitellogenin mRNA levels (Lazier et al., 1996). In this latter case, androgen treatments also lowered serum estradiol levels in females, suggesting that effects may be occurring by feedback of steroids at the hypothalamic or hypophyseal levels.

Vitellogenin appears to be involved in feedback control of estrogen levels in rainbow trout. Treatment of females with vitellogenin reversibly reduces circulating estradiol levels, and oocytes treated in vitro with vitellogenin show decreases in estradiol synthesis (Reis-Henriques et al., 1997). These observations indicate that estradiol and vitellogenin co-regulate each other via a negative feedback control loop. Vitellogenin synthesis by hepatocytes can also be directly influenced by growth hormone and prolactin in vitro in fish (Kwon, 1997), and the reciprocal stimulation of GH and estradiol (Zou et al., 1997) suggest that somatotropins (and IGFs, see above) may also play a role in controlling vitellogenin production in vivo by modifying steroid levels.

4.6. Hormonal control of sexual maturation

In fish, sexual maturation is central to sex differentiation since it signals the end of the growth phase of gonad development. In some species, individuals die following sexual maturation and spawning, whereas in other fish a subsequent wave of germ-cell differentiation and growth (recrudescence) occurs for future spawning periods.

During sexual maturation, dramatic shifts in steroid biosynthetic activity occur in both sexes, having effects on both somatic (e.g. Lebail, 1981; Beacham and Murray, 1983, 1986; Kramer et al., 1988) and gonadal tissues. In females, the production of testosterone and estradiol by the ovary are usually reduced, and production of 17α , 20β , dihydroxy-4-pregnen-3-one (17α , 20β -DP) is dramatically enhanced (Goetz, 1983; Sakai et al., 1987; Nagahama, 1994, 1997). It is the rise in 17α , 20β -DP rather than a decline in other steroids during the final phases of sexual maturation that is responsible for inducing final maturation of oocytes (Kobayashi et al., 1987). However, 17α , 20β DP production itself may be a consequence of reduced estradiol synthesis since the aromatase inhibitor Fadrozole is capable of prematurely inducing 17α , 20β DP production in preovulatory coho salmon Afonso et al., 1999a,b). An enzyme (20β hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase) responsible for conversion of 17α hydroxyprogesterone to 17α , 20β DP has been recently characterized (Guan et al., 1999), and this enzyme has been shown to be induced in granulosa cells by gonadotropin. Production of 17α , 20β DP during sexual maturation has now been observed in many fish species (Young et al., 1982, 1983c; Goetz, 1983; Nagahama et al., 1983; Ueda et al., 1983; Scott et al., 1984; Van der Kraak et al., 1984, 1985; Levavi Zermansky and Yaron, 1986; Goetz et al., 1987; Nagahama, 1987; Kobayashi et al., 1988; Mayer et al., 1992; Frantzen et al., 1997; Mylonas et al., 1997a; Estay et al., 1998). In multiple spawners, and some single spawners, levels of 17α , 20β DP still cycle with sexual maturity, but estradiol levels can remain relatively high through maturation, and continued recruitment of oogonial cells occurs throughout the spawning period to allow ovary development for the next cycle (Levavi Zermansky and Yaron, 1986; Drori et al., 1994; Rinchard et al., 1997). The mechanism by which 17α , 20β DP causes egg maturation involves a complex interaction between oocyte 17α , 20β -DP receptors, prostaglandins PGE1, PGE2, PGF1 α , PGF2 α (Kobayashi and Stacey, 1993), and signal transduction pathways operating via inhibitory G proteins (Yoshikuni and Nagahama, 1994; Goetz and Garczynski, 1997; Nagahama, 1999). The intracellular events inducing maturation involve the derepression of cyclin-B mRNA translation by polyadenylation (Katsu et al., 1997), allowing production of this protein, which in turn complexes with egg stores of cdc-2 kinase (Yamashita et al., 1995; Nagahama, 1997). The cyclin B and cdc-2 complex are phosphorylated to form maturation promoting factor (MPF), which in turn induces germinal vesicle breakdown (GVBD) and oocyte maturation.

Other steroids (e.g. 17α , 20β , 21-trihydroxy-4-pregnen-3-one) have also been shown to be synthesized by gonadal tissues (Canario and Scott, 1989; Trant and Thomas, 1989), interact with specific gonadal receptors (Patino and Thomas, 1990; Pinter and Thomas, 1995), and are capable of inducing oocyte maturation (Trant and Thomas, 1988; Canario and Scott, 1990), indicating that a variety of steroids may act as maturation hormones among different fish species.

Changes in steroid biosynthesis during maturation in females is mediated in part by a reduction in the amount of ovarian aromatase enzyme, and consequently reduced conversion of testosterone to estradiol in the follicle (Young et al., 1983a). This control is exerted at the mRNA level, probably by affecting the transcription rate of the aromatase gene (Trant et al., 1997), which may be mediated by the transcription factor FTZ-F1 (Tanaka et al., 1995; Watanabe et al., 1999). However, alterations in steroid synthesis also occur at higher levels in the steroid synthetic pathway. At the onset of maturation, 17α -hydroxyprogesterone conversion to androstenedione and testosterone is dramatically reduced, and the pathway leading to 17α , 20β -DP is enhanced (Kobayashi et al., 1996a). These shifts in steroid profiles imply that a reduction in 17β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase and C17, 20 lyase activities are probably responsible (Sakai et al., 1988). How this latter enzyme activity is reduced is currently unclear: The production of 17α -hydroxyprogesterone (the precursor to 17α , 20β -DP) requires the activity of 17α -hydroxylase, but genetic studies have revealed that this enzyme activity (needed for pregnenolone to 17α -hydroxypregnenolone conversion) and C17, 20 lyase activities are found within the same protein in two classes (dogfish and trout) of fish (Lin et al., 1993; Trant, 1995, 1996). Thus, blockage of androstenedione synthesis may be occurring by the selective inhibition of C17, 20 lyase activity within this protein, or by the suppression of *P450c17* production and activation of another gene encoding only 17α -hydroxylase activity. Within the *P450c17* enzyme, the C17, 20 lyase activity requires higher levels of *P450* reductase for maximal activity than does the 17α -hydroxylase activity, which may allow independent regulation of these activities (Lin et al., 1993). Calcium-mediated signaling may also play a role, since C17, 20 lyase activity can be enhanced by inhibition of phosphodiesterase activity, an effect that can be blocked with a calcium ionophore or by activating protein kinase C (Kobayashi et al., 1996a). Barry et al. (1990) hypothesized that during the high level of steroid synthesis occurring during the gonadotropin surge at final maturation, C17, 20-lyase may become saturated with 17α -hydroxyprogesterone and the excess diffuses out of testicular somatic cells to spermatozoa where it is metabolized to 17α , 20β -DP. The latter hormone may inhibit C17, 20 lyase activity to cause a positive feedback circuit, which results in a very rapid switch from androgen to 17α , 20β -DP synthesis (Barry et al., 1990).

The redirection of steroid synthesis makes 17α -hydroxyprogesterone (produced in Leydig cells and thecal cells) available for conversion to the maturation hormone 17α , 20β -DP (Nagahama and Yamashita, 1988), a reaction which is catalyzed by 20β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase. This enzyme is found in spermatozoa and other germ cells in the testis (Hourigan et al., 1991; Asahina et al., 1993; Vizziano et al., 1996b), and granulosa cells of ovarian follicles (Nagahama and Yamashita, 1988). This enzyme is not restricted to maturing gonads, but can also be found in immature trout testicular tissues that can produce 17α , 20β -DP in response to type-II gonadotropin (LH) (Vizziano et al., 1995). Activity of 20β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase can also be found in extragonadal tissues in salmon, trout, and goldfish, suggesting that significant production of 17α , 20β -DP may occur in other tissues (Sangalang and Freeman, 1988; Ebrahimi and Kime, 1998).

In males, androgen production remains high throughout sexual maturation, even during the period of 17α , 20β -DP synthesis (Fitzpatrick, 1985; Mayer et al., 1990, 1992; Schulz

et al., 1994). In vitro, testis utilize progesterone more effectively than pregnenolone, whereas ovaries can utilize both precursors equally effectively (Sangalang and Freeman, 1988), indicating that the steroid pathways leading to 17α , 20β -DP differ between the sexes. In rainbow trout, in vitro studies have shown that only low levels of estradiol synthesis occur in male trout, but these are reduced even further at the onset of maturation. Estradiol treatment can inhibit production of 17α , 20β -DP production in vitro in testis (Vizziano et al., 1996a), indicating that reproductive impairments arising from environmental estrogenic compounds could be in part due to disruption of testicular 17α , 20β -DP production, which could in turn affect the actions of this hormone in both maturation and pheromonal stimulation of reproductive behaviours (e.g. Van der Kraak et al., 1989; Sorensen and Goetz, 1993).

4.7. Neuroendocrine control of gonad development

Gonadal development in both sexes is dependent on endocrine communication between the brain, pituitary and gonads, allowing developmental, physical, chemical, social and seasonal cues to be integrated with gonad maturation (Bieniarz and Epler, 1992; Yaron, 1995; Trudeau, 1997). A primary source of control for this pituitary–gonadal axis is mediated through the production of gonadotropins (GtH) in the pituitary gland, of which there are two main types (Suzuki et al., 1988b; Swanson et al., 1991; Van der Kraak et al., 1992a). Prior to maturation, GtHI (a gonadotropin analogous to mammalian follicle stimulating hormone, FSH) is produced that promotes steroid synthesis and gonadal growth and differentiation throughout much of a fish's life (Miura et al., 1991; Van Winkoop et al., 1994; Miura et al., 1996; Nagahama, 1999). This process has been well elaborated for the eel testis that can complete development of all stages of spermatogenesis in vitro in defined culture conditions (Miura et al., 1996). In this case, the interaction of gonadotropin with receptors on Leydig cells suppresses the production of proteins (ZP2 and ZP3), which may inhibit spermatogenesis (Miura et al., 1998), and induces 11β -hydroxylase and 11β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase enzyme activities and hence 11 -ketotestosterone production. This latter hormone induces Sertoli cells to synthesize activin β_B , which is capable of inducing premeiotic spermatogonial proliferation (Nagahama et al., 1997). Activin β_B and its receptor cDNAs have recently been cloned from goldfish ovary, and activin β_B is found to be expressed both in gonadal and nongonadal tissues, suggesting a role wider than control of gametogenesis (Ge et al., 1997a,b).

During the period of sex determination in the gonochoristic rainbow trout, GtHI first appears in the larval pituitary gland at a time when gonadal sex cells begin to divide (Saga et al., 1993) but no differences in distribution of GtH-I reactive cells are observed between males and females (Feist and Schreck, 1996). Similarly, in *O. bonariensis*, both GtH1 and GtH2 protein are immunohistochemically detectable in larval pituitary glands just prior to and during the sex determination period (Miranda et al., 2001). Although larval GtH synthesis may be stimulated by steroid production from the newly differentiating gonad, it is also possible that gonadotropin is important for stimulating the development of the early indifferent gonad (Van Winkoop et al., 1994). Gonadotropins have been shown to play a critical role in sex differentiation in hermaphroditic species (see Section 4.9). As sexual maturation approaches, a switch occurs in the pituitary gland such that a new form of

gonadotropin is produced (GtHII), which is analogous to mammalian leutenizing hormone (LH). The production of LH induces receptor-mediated changes in gonadal enzymes and steroid production [e.g. 11β -hydroxylase (Jiang et al., 1996), and aromatase (Kagawa et al., 1982; Young et al., 1983a)], which results in production of 17α , 20β -DP and induced germ-cell maturation as described in Section 4.6.

The production and release of different forms of gonadotropins (determined by the expression of different β subunits which combine with a common α subunit) from the pituitary gland is influenced by sex steroids and gonadotropin-releasing hormones (GnRHs) involving a Ca^{2+} -dependent process (Levavi-Sivan and Yaron, 1993; Bhattacharya et al., 1994; Melamed et al., 1998, 2000). Secreted gonadotropins interact with the gonad by binding to specific receptors (see below), which influence gene expression in recipient cells via second messenger processes involving cAMP (Young et al., 1983b; Kanamori and Nagahama, 1988). Administration of gonadotropins, or gonadotropin-release hormones such as LHRH, can accelerate the onset, and increases the magnitude, of 17α , 20β -DP production, and thereby promote ovulation or spermiation. For example, injection of preovulatory chinook salmon females with pituitary GtH extracts (or gonadotropin-releasing hormones, which in turn affect GtHs) around the time of maturation reduces circulating estradiol levels, increases 17α , 20β -DP, and can induce early ovulation (Van der Kraak et al., 1983, 1985). Similarly, in males, LHRH or GtH treatment increases testosterone levels and/or spermiation in carp (Ngamvongchon et al., 1987) and trout (Schulz et al., 1992). Similar effects have been observed in many other studies and other fish species (e.g. Hirose et al., 1983; Van der Kraak et al., 1984, 1985; Fitzpatrick et al., 1987; Zhao and Wright, 1988; Zhao et al., 1988; Schulz and Bluem, 1990; Nagahama, 1994; Mylonas et al., 1997b,c). Evidence has also been presented that growth hormone can accentuate the steroid-enhancing effects of gonadotropin in the goldfish ovary, although this somatotropin seems not to have an effect in isolation (Van der Kraak et al., 1990).

In some fish species, GtH release from the pituitary is under negative control by dopamine (Lin and Peter, 1996). Treatment of male goldfish with dopamine (or a dopamine agonist, apomorphine) suppresses GtH levels (Chang and Peter, 1983a), and, conversely, dopamine antagonists such as domperidone are able to enhance the actions of GnRH and increase GtH levels (Lin and Peter, 1996). Dopamine appears to act (in part) downstream of neural inhibition of GtH release since fish with high GtH levels arising from preoptic ablations still show reductions in GtH with dopamine or apomorphine treatment (Chang and Peter, 1983a). Treatment of tilapia pituitary fragments or cells with cAMP, Ca^{2+} ionophores, or inhibitors and agonists involved in receptor signal transduction reveal that dopamine inhibition acts downstream of protein kinase C and Ca^{2+} influx, and upstream of arachidonic acid (Chang et al., 1993; Levavi-Sivan et al., 1995). Nicotine also controls GtHII production by causing direct release from pituitary cells in common carp (Mikolajczyk et al., 1993), indicating potential cholinergic regulation of secretion, but this effect seems to be inhibited through dopaminergic action in vivo (Mikolajczyk et al., 1998). Other factors involved in regulating GtH secretion include neuropeptide-Y (NPY) (Peng et al., 1993), bombesin (Himick and Peter, 1995), serotonin (Somoza and Peter, 1991), and GABA (Trudeau et al., 1993a), which act by accentuating GnRH production. These latter effectors may also be influenced by seasonal changes and sex steroids levels (Trudeau, 1997).

Once released from the pituitary, gonadotropins circulate via the bloodstream and interact with receptors on target tissues. GtHI and GtHII binding studies have indicated the presence of two gonadotropin receptors in the fish gonad: One receptor (GtHRI) binds both GtHI and GtHII, whereas another (GtHRII) binds only GtHII (Miwa et al., 1994). Recently, a GtH receptor has been cloned and characterized from amago salmon ovarian follicles; both GtHI and GtHII interacted well with this receptor and elevated cyclic AMP levels in transfected COS cells expressing the receptor clone (Oba et al., 1999). In the vitellogenic ovary, GtHI receptors are found on both thecal and granulosa cells (intensely on the latter), whereas in the preovulatory follicle, they are only found on thecal cells. These results are consistent with the stimulatory effects that gonadotropins (and indirectly their releasing hormones) have on steroid biosynthesis in vitellogenic ovaries (Kagawa et al., 1984; Zhao and Wright, 1986; Haddy and Pankhurst, 1998), and suggest that the switch in steroid synthesis that occurs at maturation arises in part through GtHI receptor-controlled destimulation of granulosa cells. Similarly, GtHII receptors are not found in vitellogenic ovaries, but are found on granulosa cells of preovulatory follicles (Miwa et al., 1994). Thus, in granulosa cells, aromatase activity and estradiol production are correlated with GtHI interaction with its receptor, whereas 20 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase mRNA and enzyme activity (required for 17 α , 20 β -DP synthesis) are induced in granulosa cells in response to GtHII binding (Nagahama, 1997). The expression of GtHII receptors (followed by ligand activation) in granulosa cells may inhibit the production of GtHI receptors. Such a control would result in blockage of aromatase and estradiol synthesis, and would make precursor steroids from thecal cells available for the production of 17 α , 20 β -DP as described above.

In males, GtHI receptors are found at all stages of spermatogenesis, but GtHII receptors are only detected on Leydig cells during the time of spermiation (Miwa et al., 1994). These findings are consistent with GtHII being responsible for allowing the 17 α , 20 β -DP precursor 17 α -hydroxyprogesterone to accumulate in these cells during maturation. In vitro treatment of testis with gonadotropins at different stages also revealed that GtHII had a greater capability than GtHI to stimulate 17 α , 20 β -DP from late stage testis (Planas and Swanson, 1995).

Communication between the brain and the developing gonad is required to ensure appropriate GtH levels and rates of gonadal development and timing of maturation. Gonadotropins are well known to stimulate steroid synthesis in the teleost gonad, and sex steroids are able to feed back to the brain to alter GtH production. Thus, if gonadal tissue is removed from male Atlantic salmon, sex steroid and plasma and pituitary gonadotropin levels decline, and this effect can be ameliorated by androgen replacement (Borg et al., 1998). Similarly, in triploid salmon that normally have low steroid levels, estradiol treatment increases synthesis of pituitary GtH levels (Benfey et al., 1989), and in eels, in vivo androgen and estrogen treatment can induce brain and pituitary GnRH and pituitary GtH levels (Montero et al., 1995). Negative regulation of GtH release by steroids is also indicated since circulating levels of GtH do not necessarily increase with estradiol treatment (Benfey et al., 1989). Similarly, in experiments with unilaterally ovariectomized trout, estrogen levels drop and GtH levels rise in correlation with a (compensatory) recruitment of primary oocytes into vitellogenesis (Tyler et al., 1997). Curiously, in eels, it has been found that androgens but not estrogens stimulate the expression of the

gonadotropin subunit II β gene in pituitary explants in vitro (Huang et al., 1997), suggesting that direct and indirect (via aromatization) regulatory influences of sex steroids may be occurring. The exact levels of sex steroids as well as developmental differences in sensitivity to them also appear to play a role since, in immature tilapia pituitary cells, LH subunit β mRNA increases with testosterone treatment, whereas FSH subunit β mRNA is increased by low, but decreased by high, levels of testosterone, and is not increased in regressed males (Melamed et al., 1997, 1998). Androgen receptors have been identified in the goldfish brain (Pasmanik and Callard, 1988b), but the lack of estrogen receptors in GnRH-producing cells in trout (Navas et al., 1995) suggests that feedback control may be mediated by other cell populations in the brain.

In goldfish, treatments with testosterone or estrogen do not elevate GtH levels in vivo (Trudeau et al., 1993b), but these hormones do increase dopamine turnover rates and elevate levels of this neurotransmitter in the brain. Since dopamine has been shown to inhibit GnRH and consequently GtH secretion, elevated dopamine levels are able to counter any stimulatory effect from steroids to maintain GtH at normal levels (Trudeau, 1997). In tilapia, dopamine also inhibits GtH (LH) release from pituitary cells, but it does not affect mRNA levels for this gene, suggesting it inhibits LH secretion rather than production (Melamed et al., 1996). Treatment of fish with tamoxifen (an estrogen receptor blocker) can induce ovulation (Donaldson et al., 1981), perhaps by releasing dopamine inhibition of GnRH synthesis and GtHII release during sexual maturation (Chang and Peter, 1983b).

Neural control of gonadal development may also be mediated by direct innervation. Steroid producing (Leydig) cells are directly innervated in the clingfish (*Sicyases sanguineus*) testis (Perez et al., 1983), and, more recently, thecal cells in tilapia (*O. niloticus*) (Nakamura et al., 1996) have been shown to be innervated.

4.8. Steroidal control of sex differentiation in hermaphrodites

The occurrence of sex-changing fish (see Section 3.2) demonstrates that developmental pathways between testicular and ovarian differentiation can be influenced postzygotically. Investigations of hormone profiles in sex-changing fish have implicated gonadal steroids as well as brain and pituitary hormones in this process. However, the existence of synchronous hermaphrodites (which allow maturation of both male and female germ tissue simultaneously) reveals that exposure to changing levels of circulating hormones probably are only partly involved in the sex differentiation process. Local, paracrine influences and/or differences in reception of hormonal signals probably also play significant roles.

In the protandrous black porgy *A. schlegeli*, sex hormone levels peak just before the spawning season (Chang and Yueh, 1990b), and although testosterone levels are found to be similar between males, females and sex-reversing females, estradiol is higher in the latter two compared to males (Chang et al., 1994). In general, testosterone levels do not provide reliable indications of the state of gonadal differentiation (e.g. Yeung and Chan, 1987c), whereas the presence of 11-oxygenated androgens has been correlated with the testicular phase in protandrous fish. Similarly, a rise in estradiol levels concomitant with the sex-reversal process usually occurs. Estradiol levels in the protandrous *Sparidentex hasta* (Kime et al., 1991), sea bass *L. calcarifer* (Guiguen et al., 1993), and anemonefish

Amphiprion melanopus (Godwin, 1994a) are higher in females than males, and the male-associated androgens 11-ketotestosterone and 11 β -hydroxytestosterone were found to be higher in males than females, as is the case for gonochorists. Concordantly, in protandrous *Pagellus acarne* and *L. calcarifer*, the presence of these steroids has been correlated with enzyme activities for 11 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase and 11 β -hydroxylase in testicular tissues, and aromatase activity in ovary (Reinboth et al., 1986; Guiguen et al., 1995). During the course of sex reversal in *A. melanopus*, all androgen levels examined declined, but estradiol levels did not show a rise until after ovarian development was underway, implying that circulating estradiol may be a consequence of sex reversal rather than a cause (Godwin, 1994a).

In vitro studies with gonadal tissues from another protandrous anemonefish, *A. frenatus*, has shown that different tissue types from the gonad have different steroid synthesizing capabilities, notably 11-ketotestosterone in testicular tissue, and both testosterone and estradiol in ovary (Nakamura et al., 1994). Discrete steroid synthetic capabilities reflective of the gonadal tissue type again suggests the importance of local differentiation and paracrine action of these hormones.

Administration of sex steroids has shown they can play a direct role in sex reversal of protandrous fish. For example, treatment of black sea bream (*Sparus macrocephalus*) with diethylstilbestrol can induce feminization a year prior to the normal time of sex reversal (Ruan et al., 1996), and administration of estradiol to black porgies *A. schlegeli* also enhances sex reversal to females (Chang et al., 1994, 1995b). Estradiol treatment reduces the synthesis of testosterone and 11-ketotestosterone, and increases aromatase enzyme activity (Chang and Lin, 1998) in *A. schlegeli*, but androgen levels rise again after cessation of estradiol treatment, suggesting that endogenous controls take some time to be overridden in this protandrous species. Combined, these results indicate that estradiol plays a direct role in sex reversal in protandrous species by suppressing masculinizing steroids and stimulating enzymes needed for estrogen synthesis.

In protogynous fish, androgen and estrogen levels have also been shown to correlate with sex change. In the stoplight parrotfish, *Sparisoma viride*, sex change is correlated with a dramatic rise in plasma 11-ketotestosterone and a reduction in estradiol (Cardwell and Liley, 1991). Similarly, 11-ketotestosterone (plasma levels or in vitro synthesis rates from gonadal tissues) is generally higher in males, and estradiol is higher in females, in other protogynous species, including groupers *Epinephelus morio* (Johnson et al., 1998) and *E. akaara* (Tanaka et al., 1990a), black sea bass *Centropristis striatus* (Cochran and Grier, 1991), and the wrasses *Pseudolabrus japonicus* (Morita et al., 1997), *Coryphopterus nicholsi* (Kroon and Liley, 2000), and *T. duperrey* (Hourigan et al., 1991). In *T. duperrey*, the enzyme aromatase is expressed in the protogynous ovary until sex change is initiated, at which point expression levels decline to undetectable levels in developing testis (Morrey et al., unpublished in Nagahama, 1999). In the synchronous hermaphrodite *Serranus subligarius*, in vitro incubations of testicular regions of gonads with pregnenolone produce primarily 11-ketotestosterone and 11 β -hydroxytestosterone, whereas the dominant product from ovarian tissues comigrates with a novel trihydroxylated progesterone (Oliver, 1991).

Treatment of protogynous hermaphrodites with androgens (either 11-ketotestosterone, or the synthetic androgen 17 α -methyltestosterone) can masculinize and enhance sex-

reversal in *S. viride* (Cardwell and Liley, 1991), as well as groupers *Mycteroperca microlepis* (Roberts and Schlieder, 1983), *Epinephelus suilus* (Tan-Fermin et al., 1994) and *E. aeneus* (Hassin et al., 1997). Withdrawal of 17α -methyltestosterone treatment in this latter species results in reversion back to an ovarian condition (Tan-Fermin, 1992), analogous to the effect described above for estrogen withdrawal and transient sex reversal in the protandrous *A. schlegeli*. Treatment of female blackeye gobies, *C. nicholsi*, with androgens or an aromatase inhibitor were both capable of causing sex reversal (Kroon and Liley, 2000), indicating the importance of androgens, and possibly lack of estrogens, on sex differentiation in this species. Gonadal transformation is not always complete with these hormone treatments: In bluehead wrasse (*T. bifasciatum*) implanted with testosterone (Kramer et al., 1988), ovarian degeneration occurred without testicular development, however transformation of the blue head colour (a secondary sex character) was complete.

4.9. Neuroendocrine control of gonadal differentiation

The changes occurring in sex-reversing fish do so in step with behavioural (see Section 6.3) or seasonal cues, and are therefore linked to brain function and regulation. Thus, in vivo or in vitro treatments of protandrous fish with gonadotropin or hormones affecting its release have been found to have a general influence on gonadal steroid production, as occurs in gonochorists (see Section 4). In species with gonads that are hermaphroditic early in development, sex differentiation can also be influenced. For example, treatment of *Anguilla dieffenbachii* with salmon pituitary extracts enhances testicular and ovarian tissues (Lokman and Young, 1998).

Among protandrous species, gonadotropins or their releasing hormones (e.g. LHRH and analogues) have been shown to increase testosterone in males or bisexuals, and testosterone and estradiol in females (Chang et al., 1991; Nakamura et al., 1994). LHRH treatments also increases oocyte growth, as does treatment with an antiestrogen, the latter perhaps acting by release of negative regulation by estrogens at the level of the pituitary gland (Chang and Yueh, 1990a) (see Section 4.7). Similarly, although no effect of LHRH treatment on steroid hormone levels was observed in *S. aurata*, treatments did result in a reduced percentage of testicular tissue in the gonad (Vilia and Canario, 1995), suggesting that gonadotropins are involved in sex transformation in this protandrous species. In vitro treatment of *S. aurata* gonadal tissues with human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) strongly suppressed radioactive androstenedione to testosterone conversion in testis but not in ovary (Eckstein et al., 1978), indicating a possible mechanism by which sex reversal may be mediated. Gonadotropins and their releasing hormones seem to be differentially regulated between the sexes in *S. aurata* (Elizur et al., 1995), and higher numbers of GnRH-producing cells are observed in the preoptic area of the brain in males than females in *A. melanopus* (Elofsson et al., 1997). These results suggest that fluctuating levels of gonadotropins (and/or ratios of FSH- vs. LH-types) may play a role in sex transformation in protandrous fish.

Treatments with gonadotropin or gonadotropin-releasing hormones are also able to induce sex reversals in protogynous fish, resulting in the production of germ cells (spermatogonia, spermatocytes, and spermatids) and somatic (Leydig) cells. In *Synbranchus marmoratus* (Ravaglia et al., 1997) and *M. albus* (Tao et al., 1993), treatment with a

salmon GnRH analogue elevated androgen levels and induced functional sex reversals, although in the latter species the sex-reversing effects of GnRH or non piscine gonadotropins may be more effective in postspawned than prespawned females (Yeung et al., 1993a,c). HCG induces precocious sex reversal in *C. julis* (Reinboth and Bruslé Sicard, 1997), and, in *T. bifasciatum*, hCG injection can rapidly induce the appearance of testicular tissue in females within 6 weeks in most animals (Koulish and Kramer, 1989). Peptides regulating gonadotropin production such as GnRH analogues (Kramer et al., 1993) or NPY (Kramer and Imbriano, 1997) also can strongly influence sex reversal in protogynous species (*T. bifasciatum*). Interestingly, in the same species, enhanced numbers of GnRH-producing cells in the preoptic area of the brain are correlated with sex-transformed individuals (Grober and Bass, 1991). Together, these findings provide strong evidence for the involvement of hypophyseal and pituitary-level controls in mediating environmental cues for sex change in these protogynous species. Evidence has also been presented for the important role of GtH2 and specific forms of GnRH in testicular differentiation in the gonochoristic sea bream, *D. labrax* (Rodriguez et al., 2000).

4.10. Extragonadal metabolism and secretion of sex steroids

Circulating sex steroid levels in fish are maintained by a balance of synthesis, degradation, solubilization, and excretion of steroids (Andersson and Foerlin, 1992). The bioactivity of steroids in plasma can be modulated by their availability in free form, by steroid binding proteins, (Foucher et al., 1991, 1992; Laidley and Thomas, 1997), and/or by conjugation with glucuronic or sulfuric acid (Schulz, 1986; Yeoh et al., 1996). Whereas much (but not all) steroid synthesis occurs in the gonad, the major site of catabolism of steroids and steroid conjugates is in the liver. The enzymes involved in extragonadal metabolism of steroids belong principally to the cytochrome *P450* family, which is a large and diverse group of proteins involved in oxygenation of xenobiotics, steroids, and other compounds (Stegeman, 1993). Such enzymes have the capability to alter the hormonal milieu of a developing embryo, and thus potentially also sex differentiation.

When labeled testosterone is injected intra-arterially into rainbow trout or flounder, the metabolites isolated in bile are primarily forms of dihydrotestosterone, and all are found to be glucuronide derivatives (Truscott, 1983). Thus, efficient glucuronide conjugation and hepatic steroid 5 α -reductase activities appear to be involved in androgen metabolism in fish. Androgen metabolism associated with the enzymes 17-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase, 6 β -hydroxylase, and 16 β -hydroxylase enzyme activities have also been identified in liver microsomes from both sexes of rainbow trout and channel catfish (Hansson and Gustafsson, 1981; Schlenk et al., 1993).

For estradiol metabolism, conversion has been shown to be dependent upon oxygen, which again strongly implicates the involvement of *P450* enzymes (Hansson and Rafter, 1983). Characterization of estradiol metabolism by scup (*Stenotomus chrysops*) liver microsomes has revealed that major metabolites included the anticipated estriols and estrone. However, the principle catabolite was 2-hydroxy-estradiol (Snowberger and Stegeman, 1987), demonstrating that, as is the case for mammals, the enzyme estradiol 2-hydroxylase is involved. Liver 6 β -hydroxylase activity (Klotz et al., 1986) and estradiol 2-hydroxylase activity are CYP1A1 (*P450*) enzymes distinct from the form (*P450E*) that

is inducible with hydrophobic organic xenobiotics or model compounds such as β -naphthaflavone (Snowberger and Stegeman, 1987).

Distinct differences between the sexes can be observed for several *P450* enzyme activities involved in steroid metabolism (Andersson and Foerlin, 1992; Stegeman, 1993). For example, in scup (*S. chrysops*) and winter flounder (*Pseudopleuronectes americanus*), estradiol 2-hydroxylase is present at higher levels in male than female liver microsome extracts (Snowberger and Stegeman, 1987), and activities of 6 β -hydroxylase are lower in females than males of winter flounder, but not scup (Gray et al., 1991). In winter flounder, both of these activities can be suppressed by estradiol treatment, but these differences are reduced or not apparent when activity is normalized to total *P450* protein levels, suggesting that factors other than differential production of CYP proteins may be responsible for this difference (e.g. competition for ribosomes by the stimulation of vitellogenin synthesis) (Snowberger and Stegeman, 1987; Gray et al., 1991). Similarly, the xenobiotic metabolizing *P450* enzyme CYP1A1 is also found at lower levels in maturing female than male flounder (*P. americanus*), and measurements of mRNA levels indicate that this effect is mediated by a pretranslational regulation, again suggesting that access to protein synthetic machinery may play a role (Elskus et al., 1992). In kidney, male trout have dramatically higher kidney *P450* 6 β - and 16 β -hydroxylase activities than do females during the late reproductive stages, whereas females have a higher level of estradiol 2-hydroxylase (Andersson, 1990). Differences in kidney steroid enzyme levels between sexes may be caused in part by the presence of a sex-specific *P450* enzyme (KM2) that is inducible by androgens, including 11-ketotestosterone (Andersson, 1992). Clearly, complex differences in enzyme type, level, and tissue distribution exist between the sexes at different reproductive stages, and thus, the exact role that these sexually dimorphic activities play in sex-steroid metabolism and sex differentiation remains unclear at present.

5. Sex-determination systems

The gonads of fish generally are very labile with respect to sex determination, but once a particular developmental profile has been selected by intrinsic controls, or directed by exogenous factors such as hormones, the state of gonadal differentiation may then be stably perpetuated throughout subsequent development. As discussed previously, exceptions to this stability exist in fish, exemplified by the ability of some hermaphroditic species to alter the course of sex differentiation (see Sections 3.2 and 5.7). However, these are specialized (albeit not rare) cases where sex determination is altered to allow flexible production of gamete types to maximize fitness. The stability of sex differentiation in gonochoristic species implies that sex-determination events primarily function during early development to set the course of gonadal development, and subsequent maintenance of the differentiated state is accomplished through the stability of gene expression patterns and feedback mechanisms to ensure a consistent profile of cellular and hormonal signals.

Several levels of control for gonadal determination seem feasible for fish, including intrinsic cell-autonomous genetic mechanisms, or endocrine, paracrine, behavioural, or environmental signals. For example, it is possible that PGCs interpret internal genetic or external environmental cues and directly transform into spermatogonia or oogonia; in turn,

the surrounding somatic cells would be induced by the germ cells to differentiate accordingly to provide an appropriate hormonal environment for further gonadal differentiation. Alternatively, somatic cells may initially interpret genetic or other sex-determination signals, and subsequent differentiation of PGCs occurs in response to signals derived from surrounding cells. In model genetic organisms, cell transplantation experiments and mosaic analysis have allowed researchers to determine whether sex determination occurs on a cell-by-cell basis or is based on interactions between adjacent or distant cell types. In *Drosophila* for example, chromosome loss or mitotic exchange can create animals with mixtures of genetically male and female cells, revealing that sex is determined mosaically on a single-cell basis (Cline and Meyers, 1996). Evidence from mammalian systems has strongly implicated that somatic cells rather than germ cells are the site of initial sex determination (Capel, 1996, 1998).

Fish utilize a wide array of mechanisms to control sex differentiation (Fig. 1). Many species use genetic systems that determine sex at fertilization, some use intrinsic clues provided by behavioural interactions among conspecifics, whereas others utilize changes in environmental factors such as temperature, season, or year class (Section 6). In theory, organisms may move between these different systems of sex determination without difficulty (Bull, 1985), depending on the degree of selection acting on the process, and in many cases, an equal ratio of males and females will be selected for in populations (Fisher, 1930). Indeed, for fish, experimental data has been provided supporting the concept that genetic selection will tend to balance sex ratio in *Menidia menidia* (Conover and Van Voorhees, 1990; Conover et al., 1992) and in *Xiphophorus maculatus* (Basolo, 1994, 2001).

The previous sections outline complex developmental, biochemical, and endocrine systems that have been found to influence sex differentiation in fish. Yet, these pathways currently do not provide complete insight into the initial events that ultimately destine an embryonic cell or gonad to proceed down male, female, or intersex pathways of development. Similarly, while the following sections outline described systems of sex determination in fish, as yet, we do not know at what biochemical, cellular or physiological level the developmental fate of the gonad is determined, nor do we know for fish whether sex determination is initiated first in germ cells or somatic cells, or both simultaneously.

5.1. Genetic determination of sex

The sex determination pathway can be viewed as a complex series of interacting biochemical processes that ultimately lead to sex-cell determination and differentiation. The activity or potency of each step in this pathway for determining sex will vary among individuals within a population, arising both from allelic variation at genetic loci encoding components of the pathway and from environmental influences (see Section 6). In genetic systems, certain components, or combinations of components, within the pathway may become dominant in influencing the direction of sex determination such that environmental factors have little influence. Some genes may direct ovarian and others testicular development, and the sex of a particular individual will be determined by the strength of the genetic factors it receives from its parents. Initially in the evolution of a sex-determining system, it is suspected that genetic effects would be polygenic, arising from the sum total influence of all genetic factors involved in sex determination in the genome.

However, over time, one component may gain such influence over the direction of the pathway that other genetic loci do not override its effects. In this case, sex will be determined by a simple, single-locus genetic system, and sex chromosomes may develop (see Section 5.2 and 5.3). In genetic systems, mechanisms range from purely polygenic controls, to those with dominant sex-determining factors mixed with autosomal controls, to highly evolved sex chromosomes with heterogametic (XY) males or heterogametic (ZW) females (Bull, 1983). Among fish species, all of these different approaches to controlling sex determination are utilized (Fig. 1).

The nature of genetic variation that leads to variable effects on sex determination in fish is currently not known. Different alleles will exist in populations that alter abilities of biochemical components to accomplish their respective tasks, and small effects are expected to act at a variety of levels, including biochemical conversions, signal reception and transduction, and activation or repression of gene complexes involved in initiating or maintaining the sex-determination cascade. As a hypothetical example, control of estradiol synthesis could play a key role. During the course of normal development, steroid-producing cells in the indifferent gonad may be directed to develop pathways for conversion of pregnenolone to testosterone even in the absence of any influence by sex-determination factors. In cells that are genetically female, the enzyme aromatase may be activated along with the other steroidogenic enzymes, whereas in genetically male cells, the aromatase gene remains inactive (either by repression or failure to activate). In mammalian systems, the product of the male-determining *Sry* locus has been shown to directly interact with regulatory regions of the aromatase gene promoter (Haqq et al., 1993). Although *Sry* is thought to be primarily expressed in Sertoli cells, this may not be exclusively so, and sequence variation in the aromatase gene promoter, or in SRY-like proteins capable of disrupting such interaction, could render the aromatase gene to be constitutively expressed or permanently repressed, resulting in altered estradiol production and gonadal development. Other genetic variation might influence aromatase catalytic enzyme activity to modify the ratio of estradiol to testosterone, or changes in the estrogen receptor could affect hormonal signaling. Because sex determination in gonochorists acts as a switch to initiate a developmental cascade that is stably maintained, even small genetic differences that influence this decision early in the process may ultimately have striking effects on sex determination (i.e. resulting in biased sex ratios, hermaphroditism, or sex inversion). Whatever the exact genetic influences utilized within a species, they must initiate or direct a cascade of gene regulatory controls that provide cells with specific differentiated sexual phenotypes. It is anticipated that genes upstream in developmental pathways may be more evolutionary diverse or variable than those in downstream regulatory positions (Marin and Baker, 1998) since gene mutations that gain control of the entire sex-determination process by interceding at the beginning of the pathway will cause fewer disruptions than would novel genetic activities which control only a downstream portion of sex differentiation.

The preceding illustrative examples are only hypothetical mechanisms that could be used to determine sex in fish, and in fact, no genes are currently known with certainty that are involved in the initial sex-determination process in fish. In *Drosophila* and nematodes, complicated pathways have been elucidated that regulate sex determination (Cline and Meyers, 1996), but these do not share homologies with vertebrate systems except for the DM domain proteins (described below). In vertebrate systems, the H–Y antigen (the

product of the *Smcy* locus) was originally believed to be a good candidate for a sex-determining factor since it was associated with tissues of the heterogametic sex in mammals and some other vertebrates (Simpson et al., 1997; Wolf, 1998), but further studies have shown that, in fish, this antigen is not differentially present between the sexes or clearly associated with heterogamety in all species (Muller and Wolf, 1979; Nakamura et al., 1984; Koehler et al., 1995), and is more associated with the gonadal phenotype (examined in sex-reversed fish arising naturally in hermaphrodites or by experimental hormone treatments) than genetic factors (Pechan et al., 1979, 1986; Duchac and Buehler, 1983; Reinboth et al., 1987). These observations suggest that H–Y antigen probably plays a secondary role in primary sex determination, but may well be very important for subsequent differentiation or redifferentiation. Indeed, many genes that are expressed in a sex-specific fashion (i.e. aromatase, *DMRT1*; see below) may be a consequence of sex differentiation rather than a causal (i.e. sex determining).

For mammals, the Y-linked gene *Sry* has been characterized and definitively shown to be the sex-determination locus (see above). An *Sry* antagonist (*Dax1*), and several other autosomal genes (e.g. *Sox9*, *SF1*, *Wt1*, *Lim1*) involved in steroid-cell differentiation and gonadal differentiation in mammals have also been characterized (Swain and Lovell-Badge, 1997; Capel, 1998; Koopman, 1999). SRY is a phosphorylated nuclear protein that appears to interact with LEF1-like transcription factor binding sites to alter the bending of DNA, which may lead to changes in chromatin domain architecture and transcription. *Sry* is expressed in Sertoli cells, and may act in a dosage-sensitive fashion by repressing other negative regulators (i.e. *Dax1*) of testis differentiation (McElreavey et al., 1993; Koopman, 1999). Overexpression of *Dax1* gene product (of the nuclear hormone receptor family), either in natural chromosomal duplications in humans or by transgenesis in mice, counters the testis-determining actions of SRY, whereas absence of DAX1 in mice has no effect on ovarian development (Goodfellow and Camerino, 2001). This strongly suggests that DAX1 is an antitestis determining factor. In mammals, the absence of SOX9 function can result XY sex reversal, and *Sox9* gene expression is upregulated in male and down-regulated in female genital ridges just prior to sex differentiation, suggesting an important role for this protein in testicular development (Koopman, 2001). Recently, homologues to *SF1* and *Sox9* have recently been characterized from fish (Fukada et al., 1995; Ito et al., 1995, 1998; Vríz and Lovell-Badge, 1995; Santacruz and Vríz, 1996; Koyano et al., 1997; Liu et al., 1997; Takamatsu et al., 1997; Kanda et al., 1998; Yamashita et al., 1998; Zhou et al., 2001) and have been found to be members of the same high-mobility group (HMG) family of DNA-binding proteins. One member of this group (*Sox-9*) does show differential expression between male and female gonads in tilapia (Nagahama, 1999) as is found in mammals and birds (Kent et al., 1996; Morais da Silva et al., 1996), consistent with an important role for testis development in all vertebrate groups.

Remarkably, another gene family involved in sex-determination in invertebrates also appears to be involved in vertebrate sex determination. Proteins from this gene family contain DM-domains [a motif identified by homology between genes involved in sex determination in insects (*Dsx*) and nematodes (*mab3*)] with DNA-binding characteristics. One member of this group, *DMRT1*, has been found to contain an additional male-specific motif homologous to the male splicing variant of *Drosophila Dsx* and is expressed primarily in a testis-specific fashion in several vertebrate groups (Raymond et al., 1998).

In tilapia, *DMRT1* homologues (*tDMRT1*) possess the male-specific motif found in *DSX*, and expression appears is testis (Sertoli cells) specific (see Fig. 6), whereas another DM homologue (*tDMO*) lacked this motif and was found expressed only in ovary (Guan et al., 2000). Interestingly, examination of upstream sequences reveal *SRY* binding sites within *tDMRT1* but not *tDMO*, suggesting a close linkage between *Sox* and *DMRT1* gene products in sex determination pathways. In trout, *rtDMRT1* is also expressed predom-

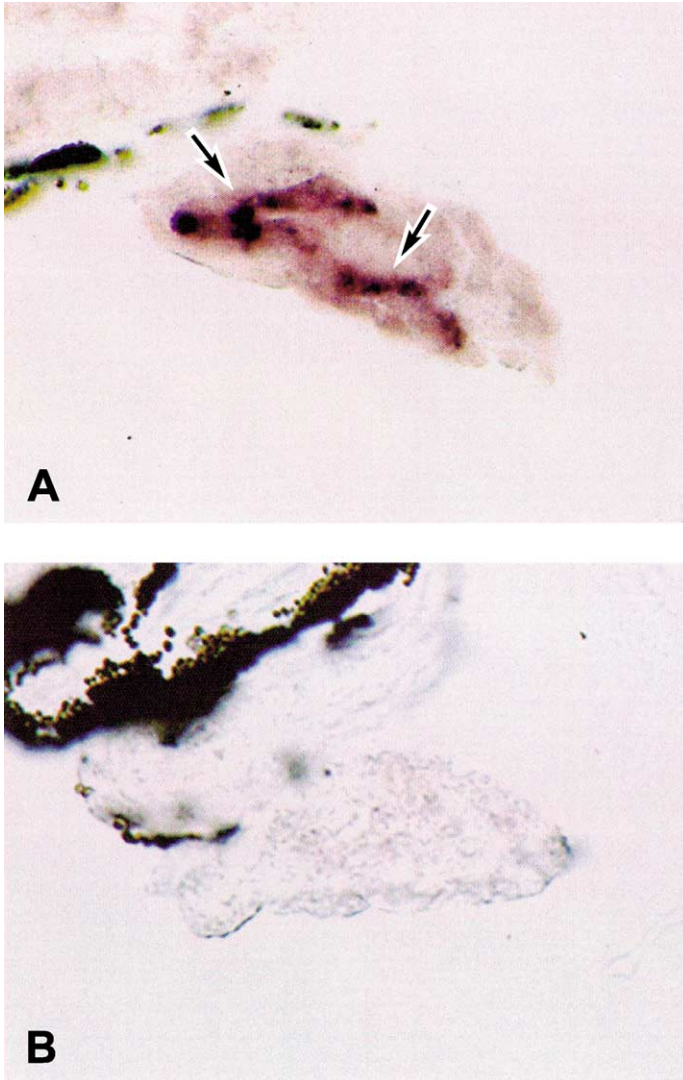


Fig. 6. Male-specific expression of *DMRT1* in tilapia gonad during sex differentiation (15 days posthatching). (A) Male (XY), (B) Female (XX). *DMRT1* is found to be expressed (arrows) only in somatic (Sertoli) cells of XY gonads. In situ hybridisation. (Unpublished, provided by T. Kobayashi).

inantly in the testis compared to ovary (> 10 fold) (Marchand et al., 2000). Masculinization of tilapia genetically female (XX) gonads with androgen induces *DMRT1* expression, whereas treatment of genetically male (XY) trout with estradiol and genetically female (XX) fish with the androgen 11 β -hydroxyandrostenedione both resulted in reduced expression (Guan et al., 2000; Marchand et al., 2000). These data suggest that *DMRT1* genes are expressed in response to testis differentiation induced by other factors (i.e. steroids), and, in these species, are either located somewhat downstream in the sex determination pathway as is the case for *Dsx* and *mab3* in invertebrates (Marin and Baker, 1998), or they are sensitive to feedback regulation. Accordingly, *DMRT1* expression in XX testis is consistent with this gene not being sex linked in three fish species (tilapia, rainbow trout, and medaka) (Guan et al., 2000; Marchand et al., 2000; Brunner et al., 2001); however, other as yet unidentified members of the DM gene family may play important primary roles in sex determination in fish.

Based on their expression patterns and association with sex determination in other species, the gene families described above are good candidates for genes involved in this process in fish. Indeed, a strong candidate for the sex-determining gene has been recently identified on the Y chromosome of medaka by positional cloning and detailed sequence analysis of BAC clones (Matsuda et al., in press). This gene (*DMY*) also is a member of the DM-domain gene family, and genetic evidence indicates it is located only on the Y chromosome in a region that is essential for male germline development. *DMY* is expressed in male somatic gonadal cells at the time of initial sex determination (analogous to *Sry* described above), and provides the first example of a sex-determination gene in lower vertebrates. In the future, characterization of similar genes from other vertebrates, as well as direct analysis of fish genomes, will undoubtedly provide a rich source of material for investigation of sex determination in fish.

5.2. Cytogenetic evidence for sex chromosomes in fish

More than 1700 species of fish have now been cytogenetically characterized (Arkhipchuk, 1995), of which approximately 176 species or 10.4% have been found to have cytogenetically distinct sex chromosomes (Appendix B). Heteromorphic chromosomes have been observed between the sexes in at least 72 families within Chondrichthyes and Osteichthyes, but none have yet been identified in Aganthans where evidence exists for nongenetic sex determination (see Section 6.2). These figures represent a minimum estimate for sex chromosome frequencies in fish since not in all cytogenetic studies have sex chromosomes been specifically looked for (due to absence of both sexes for analysis, or the phenotypic sex of samples is unknown). Perhaps more importantly, cytogenetic differences between heteromorphic pairs may in many cases be too small to be observed by current cytogenetic techniques [fish chromosomes are in general small (Gold et al., 1980)]. The examination of chromosome pairing in synaptonemal complexes can reveal the presence of sex-chromosome regions that are otherwise not visible in somatic chromosomes (Carrasco et al., 1999), but such techniques are only rarely applied in fish karyotype analysis (Oliveira et al., 1995; Van Eenennaam et al., 1998a; Campos-Ramos et al., 2001). An alternative estimate of the frequency of sex chromosomes in fish can also be provided by examining the number of species (170) where sex chromosomes were not found in studies where they were

specifically searched for (see Appendix B, ND = not detected). Using this approach, the fraction (176/176 + 170) of species found with sex chromosomes is much greater, 50.1%. Although this undoubtedly represents too high an estimate (since once sex chromosomes have been found researchers will tend to examine related species), it nevertheless suggests that the occurrence of sex chromosomes among fish species may be somewhat higher than indicated by the simple frequency observed among all known fish karyotypes. Currently, more than twice as many species display male heterogamety compared to female heterogamety (see Appendix B). It has been hypothesized that XY systems of sex determination are favoured to evolve in species where fitness positively correlates with male size, whereas ZW systems occur with female size advantage (Kraak and de Looze, 1993).

As in other organisms, sex chromosomes in fish take many karyotypic forms, consisting of subtle changes or major chromosomal rearrangements. Cytogenetic differences detected between sex chromosomes include: additions or deletions of heterochromatic blocks (e.g. Phillips and Ihssen, 1985; Andreatta et al., 1992; Cano et al., 1996; Stein et al., 2001), reductions in chromosome size (e.g. Park and Kang, 1979), increases in chromosome size (e.g. Galetti et al., 1981), and chromosome rearrangements (e.g. Uyeno and Miller, 1971; Thorgaard, 1978; Bertollo et al., 1983; de Almeida Toledo et al., 1984; Pezold, 1984; Vitturi et al., 1991b). Similar differences can be found with other chromosome pairs between individuals within a population, but when these differences in chromosome structure are restricted to one sex, the presence of sex chromosomes is strongly indicated. Karyotypic analysis reveals which sex is heterogametic and which is homogametic, thus providing information about the sex-determination mechanism employed by the species. The average sex-chromosome length in fish has been estimated to be approximately 5% of the total karyotype (Arkhipchuk, 1995), which is somewhat larger than the average chromosome size. This suggests that, on average, degeneration of sex chromosomes in fish has not usually proceeded to such a degree that large portions of the chromosome have been lost or severely genetically damaged (see below).

Among species with male heterogamety, several karyotype systems have been discovered (Appendix B). XY systems are those where the X and Y chromosomes are cytogenetically distinguishable in some way, but the diploid chromosome number ($2n$) between the sexes is the same (e.g. Thorgaard, 1977; Phillips and Ihssen, 1985). XO systems are those where the Y chromosome has been lost (e.g. Chen, 1969), and males possess one less chromosome than females. In multiple chromosome systems of the type $X_1X_2X_1X_2/X_1X_2Y$, the Y chromosome has become attached to an autosome by translocation or Robertsonian fusion, and consequently males and females have different diploid chromosome numbers and often different numbers of metacentric and acrocentric chromosomes as well (e.g. Uyeno and Miller, 1971; Thorgaard, 1978). In XX/XY_1Y_2 systems, an acrocentric X chromosome has become fused with an autosome (Frolov, 1990). Analogous chromosomal systems have been observed (Appendix B) for species with female heterogamety (Moreira et al., 1985; Sharma and Tripathi, 1988; Koehler et al., 1995; Ueno et al., 2001).

5.3. *Evolution and plasticity of fish sex chromosomes*

Genes involved in sex determination (see Section 5.1) can be distributed throughout the genome, located on single chromosomes, or restricted to a single genetic locus. In

polygenic systems, sex-determining loci on different chromosomes can segregate randomly to offspring and provide a range of influences on the sex-determination process, and, in this case, sex is determined by the cumulative genetic actions of all sex factors received by an individual rather than by the allelic state at any one locus (Bull, 1983). The condition of polygenic sex determination may persist until a strong sex-determining factor evolves in the population, at which time a single genetic locus may, temporarily or permanently, come to dominate the process. Thus, single locus control restricts sex to be determined by a single chromosome (the Y or W chromosome; see below) where the genetic state of any other chromosome in the genome has little effect on the outcome of sex determination. In populations, this is undoubtedly a dynamic process whereby sex chromosomes and other polygenic factors increase and decrease in their influence over the sex-determination process, and control moves back and forth between monogenic and polygenic control. Indeed, polygenic systems have been hypothesized to evolve from systems with clear evidence of sex chromosomes (apparent in related species) (Ota et al., 2000), suggesting that the number and type of loci involved in sex determination in fish can be very fluid.

Depending on the nature of a genetic factor that has gained dominance in the sex-determination process, either male-specific Y chromosomes or female-specific W chromosomes can result (Bull, 1983). Sex-limited chromosomes (both Y or W) can arise by two major forms of gene mutation. In the first, gain-of-function mutations may arise on a chromosome to direct the course of sex differentiation. Such mutations may be hypermorphic (elevated activity) or neomorphic (new function) in nature, and are usually dominant or co-dominant in their genetic action. Hence, in these cases, it is the presence of a Y or W chromosome that determines sex. An alternative mode of sex chromosome formation can occur when mutations in sex-determination genes result in reduced gene function (hypomorphs). In this case, dosage-dependent amounts of a gene products from sex determining loci on sex chromosomes (either X or Z, respectively) in the homogametic sex influence the course of sex differentiation. In both cases, the genetic changes lead to the presence of a single chromosome that is found only in that sex in populations. It is the isolation of such chromosomes in one sex that leads to the remarkable cytogenetic transformations that sex chromosomes can undergo (Lucchesi, 1978; Charlesworth, 1991).

All chromosomes within a genome are subjected to mutational damage from exogenous chemicals or radiation, and from intrinsic sources (e.g. free radical damage, errors in DNA repair, transposition or exchange events, etc.), and, in many cases, such mutations will disrupt the function of adjacent genes. In polygenic sex-determination systems, deleterious recessive mutations arising on chromosomes possessing sex-determining loci can be eliminated from populations by selection against homozygotes as occurs for other chromosomes. In this case, the sex-determination processes would not be seriously hampered since undamaged homologous chromosomes could still participate in sex determination among individuals. However, in cases where the number of chromosomes (or loci) involved in sex determination is few, the population genetic effects of mutation on each individual chromosome becomes more pronounced. In the extreme, in systems involving single chromosomes, the sex-determining chromosome (W or Y) exist only in heterozygous condition (XY or ZW) and cannot, under normal circumstances, become homozygous in populations. Thus, unable to experience the same negative selection in homozygous form, sex-specific Y or W chromosomes can accumulate recessive genetic

modifications, whereas similar mutations occurring on homologous chromosomes can become homozygous (in XX females or ZZ males) where selection is able to act and eliminate chromosomes with reduced fitness.

The types of mutational damage acquired by sex chromosomes can be in the form of single point mutations, deletions or duplications of small or large DNA regions, rearrangements with other chromosomes, amplifications of repetitive sequences, or insertions of autosomal DNA or mobile transposable elements (see Section 5.4). If this process proceeds for many generations, sufficient genetic alterations may occur that allows detection of morphological differences at the cytogenetic level in the form of a heteromorphic pair of sex chromosomes. Indeed, the presence of a cytogenetically distinct sex chromosome in a species implies that the sex-determination system has been stable for some time.

Mutation of loci on sex chromosomes will most often result in a reduction in the amount of gene product synthesized per cell, but this may have only a small effect on the total amount of substrate converted (Kacser and Burns, 1981) due to the nonlinear relationship between gene product level and total flux through biochemical pathways (hence the recessive nature of most mutations). While the physiological effects of each such reduction is small, the normal diploid level of gene product probably provides optimum fitness in nature, and small impairments of gene action occurring at many loci on sex-limited chromosomes would eventually accumulate such that fitness is impaired. In some vertebrate and invertebrate species, dosage compensation mechanisms have evolved to compensate for the reduction of gene function occurring on sex-limited chromosomes (Lucchesi, 1978; Charlesworth, 1996; Pannuti and Lucchesi, 2000). Thus, these mechanisms can promote the development and maintenance of sex chromosomes in populations by reducing the negative effects on fitness arising from mutation accumulation. To date, no evidence exists that dosage compensation mechanisms have evolved in fish, which may explain in part why sex-chromosome evolution in fish has remained very plastic with no single mechanism predominating.

Genetic damage can accumulate on chromosomes that do not actually encode sex-determining genes, but are nevertheless restricted to one sex by virtue of homology to, and meiotic pairing with, chromosomes that determine sex based on dosage or gene balance relative to the autosomes (i.e. *Drosophila* and nematodes). In such cases, since no gene function is actually required from the sex-limited chromosome (particularly if dosage compensation is operating—see below), degeneration can proceed in some cases until the chromosome is actually eliminated from the population, resulting in an XX/XO (or ZZ/ZO) system (see Section 5.2).

In populations, individual Y or W chromosomes will accumulate different profiles of genetic damage, and the frequencies of an individual sex chromosome will fluctuate due to population genetic processes (genetic drift, bottlenecks, selection, etc.). Over time, particular Y or W chromosomes may become fixed, and be associated in the population with all individuals of the sex determined by that chromosome. Subsequently, such sex chromosomes will acquire new genetic damage and again be subjected to new fixation forces. This repeated process of mutation and fixation is termed Muller's ratchet (Lucchesi, 1978; Charlesworth, 1991), and may occur within a population such that significant mutational damage accumulates on the sex chromosome. This damage will be

most pronounced in the vicinity of the sex-determination locus, where mutations have reduced chance of recombining onto the homologous sex chromosome where selection and elimination may occur. However, accumulation of genetic damage may also involve entire chromosomes where genetic exchange has been restricted by disruptions in recombination or by the presence of inversions or other chromosome rearrangements that interfere with chromosome pairing (Lucchesi, 1978). In nature, several variants of a sex chromosome probably exist in fish populations, each in various stages of fixation or elimination. It is likely that competition among sex chromosomes, based on both negative and positive fitness effects they carry, is commonplace.

Many fish species do not possess cytogenetically visible sex chromosomes, yet some of these same species are known to utilize genetic determination systems that are associated primarily with single chromosomes (see Appendix B and Sections 5.4–5.7). It is possible that in fish, the strength of sex-determining factors on the Y or W chromosome are not particularly strong relative to the effects of sex factors on the autosomes. If so, during the evolution of fish, it is very likely that new mutations (at loci on autosomes) might regularly have arisen that were capable of overriding the effect of the existing sex chromosomes (Komen et al., 1992b,c) (see Section 5.7.1). In such cases, XY females or ZW males would appear in populations, and in matings with regular individuals, could produce YY or WW individuals. If these sex chromosomes carry even single lethal mutations (acquired as described above), the chromosomes would be quickly removed from the population by selection. The former autosome that harbours a new mutation controlling sex determination will hence become the new sex chromosome, and the process of chromosomal degeneration will begin anew. It is interesting to note that species which possess autosomal influences on sex determination (e.g. tilapia species; Majumdar and McAndrew, 1986), or which have sex determined by environmental or other cues (see Section 6), do not usually possess cytologically distinct sex chromosomes, possibly because any given chromosome does not retain a dominant influence over sex determination for a sufficiently long period to undergo significant molecular degeneration. Differences between the sex chromosomes may be quite subtle and limited to differential pairing in meiosis, and this approach has been used to identify putative sex chromosomes in tilapia species with XY (*O. niloticus*) and ZW (*O. aureus*) systems (Carrasco et al., 1999; Campos-Ramos et al., 2001). Indeed, analysis of *O. aureus* has indicated that two separate pairs of sex chromosomes may be present, consistent with the complex pattern of genetic sex determination observed among intra- and interspecific crosses (see Section 5.5). This plasticity of sex chromosomes also implies that, among the many fish species, sex-determining genes on Y or W chromosomes may well be different, although each is probably operating within the same sex-differentiation control pathway.

Sex chromosome systems have been found to be polymorphic within a species, indicating the dynamic evolutionary nature of these systems. Thus, in rainbow trout, heteromorphic chromosomes differ among populations and are identifiable in males of only some populations (Thorgaard, 1977, 1983b; Frolov, 1989). Similarly, a Y-autosome translocation is found only in some males of *Blennius tentacularis* (Carbone et al., 1987). Interestingly, in *C. julis*, a protogynous species showing behaviourally influenced sex determination (see Section 6.3), a polymorphic Y chromosome has been identified in individuals developing as primary males, but this sex chromosome is absent in males arising from natural sex

inversion of females (Duchac et al., 1982). In this species, females and secondary males are homogametic and have sex determined by behavioural mechanisms, whereas in primary males, a genetic system appears capable of overriding social control systems. This situation, where both genetic and labile (hermaphroditic) sex-determination systems are indicated in the same species, appears to be quite rare among fishes (compare Appendices A and B). The separation of genetic and other sex-determination mechanisms (see above) extends to higher relationships among fish species: Only approximately 20% of families with sex chromosomes also have genera with sex-changing species. Sex chromosomes are not anticipated to become karyotypically differentiated to any great extent in species that do not have a firm system of genetic sex determination. If other mechanisms are able to override this process, such that matings can occur between two heterogametic individuals, this will allow sex chromosomes to become homozygous in populations and become eliminated if substantial chromosomal alteration has occurred. In these situations, one anticipates selection to strengthen one type of sex-determination mechanism at the expense of the other, or, in species like *C. julis* (Duchac et al., 1982), a balance may be established where two different reproductive approaches are maintained within breeding groups as an evolutionary strategy. For one order of fish, the Aulopiformes, a combination of karyotypic and molecular phylogenetic analysis has revealed that sex chromosomes can indeed be lost in the course of evolution, since a hermaphroditic species was found to be derived from gonochoristic species with well-differentiated sex chromosomes (Ota et al., 2000).

5.4. Genetic and molecular evidence for sex chromosomes

Sex chromosomes were first inferred from classical genetic analysis through observation of phenotypic marker segregation to the sexes in *Drosophila melanogaster*. For example, in XY systems, genetic markers that segregate from fathers to daughters are located on the X chromosome, whereas markers segregating to sons are Y linked. Markers in female parents segregate to both sexes, but recessive markers may be uncovered in the case of hemizygoty of the X chromosome in XY males. The complementary case where markers segregate from mothers to only daughters implies a ZW system of sex determination. Such inheritance patterns reveal the mode of genetic sex determination in a species (XY or ZW), and, depending on frequencies of genetic recombination between the sex-determination locus and the marker, can also indicate whether genetic linkage extends to an entire chromosome or just to the region surrounding the sex-determination locus. In fish species, genetic markers used in such segregation analyses have been both phenotypic and molecular, the latter including both protein and DNA variant loci.

5.4.1. Phenotypic markers

Classical studies examining sex linkage of phenotypic markers (Yamamoto, 1969) in fish revealed that sex was determined by an XY system in *Oryzias latipes*, *Poecilia reticulata*, *Poecilia nigrofasciata*, *B. splendens*, and five species of *Xiphophorus* (*X. variatus*, *X. xiphidium*, *X. couchianus*, *X. milleri*, *X. montezumae cortezi*) including some strains of *X. maculatus* (Aida, 1921; Wing, 1922; Yamamoto, 1969). Detailed investigations with *Xiphophorus* species were particularly revealing, since it was found that both male (XY) and a female (ZW) heterogametic systems of sex-determination existed among species in

the genus, as well as in different strains within the single species *X. maculatus*. By performing hybridization experiments between male and female heterogametic *Xiphophorus* species, and among *X. maculatus* strains (Bellamy, 1936; Gordon, 1946, 1947; Kallman, 1965), it was concluded that the Z and Y chromosomes are equivalent, and contain sex-determining factors that are epistatic to those found on the X chromosome. The W chromosome was found to be distinct, and female factors located thereon are epistatic to male determining factors on the Y or Z chromosome (thus WX, WY, and XX individuals are female, but only XY and YY individuals are male). To maintain this system within the species, modeling has indicated that the fitness of WY and WX females (e.g. fecundity) must be greater than XX females, and the fitness of XY males must be better than YY males for characters such as mating success (Orzack et al., 1980). Most importantly, these early studies on sex-linked marker segregation in model species were the first to reveal the complex and plastic nature of sex-determination systems that exist in fish.

Specific phenotypic markers affecting skin pigmentation have been identified in several fish species where male phenotype is important for mate selection by females. In the guppy *P. reticulata*, both the black caudal peduncle (*Bcp*) and red tail (*Rdt*) markers have been found to be dominant Y-linked traits (Fernando and Phang, 1989, 1990; Khoo et al., 1999), as have orange pigment spotting loci (Houde, 1992) and the *Nigrocaudatus II* gene affecting body pattern (Nayudu, 1979). In medaka, which possesses an XY sex-determination system, a marker affecting leucophores is tightly sex linked (Wada et al., 1998), and sex-linked pigment pattern genes have been mapped on the *Xiphophorus* genome map (Morizot et al., 1991). A Y-linked spotting pattern gene has also been characterized in *Gambusia affinis* mosquitofish (Angus, 1989).

Traits affecting morphological characters and fitness traits have also been found to be sex linked in fish. For example, a sex-linked low-temperature resistance gene has been identified in *P. reticulata* (Fujio et al., 1990), and in *X. maculatus*, a sex-linked gene controls the age of onset of sexual maturity (Kallman and Borkoski, 1978; Schreibman and Kallman, 1978). In *X. nigrensis* males, size and age at maturity are influenced by a Y-linked locus that can alter mating success in field and laboratory populations (Morris et al., 1992), but interestingly, overall fitness does not differ between the size morphs (Ryan et al., 1992). However, this strategy seems to be somewhat plastic, as other poeciliids such as *Phallichthys quadripunctatus* do not possess this sex-linked genetic trait (Kolluru and Reznick, 1996). Tumor-inducing loci have also been extensively studied in *X. maculatus* (see below), for which some are sex linked (e.g. Ahuja et al., 1979).

In studies examining segregation of phenotypic markers, it is critical to distinguish between traits that are encoded by sex-linked genetic loci and those that arise as secondary-sex characteristics that appear only in one sex because of hormonal or other influences.

5.4.2. Protein markers

Isozyme loci have also proven very useful for the identification of sex-linked modes of inheritance in fish. In channel catfish, the *GPI-B* locus is found on the sex chromosomes, approximately 16 map units away from the sex-determination locus and on the other side

of the centromere (Liu et al., 1996a). In rainbow trout, isozymes have been extensively studied, but only the *HEX-2* and *sSOD-1* loci have been found to be sex linked (Allendorf et al., 1994). In charr, the *EST-2* locus in *S. alpinus* appears to be linked to the sex-determination locus in some populations (all males are heterozygotes) (Nyman et al., 1984), and a male-specific IDH isozyme variant has been described for *G. aculeatus* (Withler et al., 1986). Using hybrids between *S. alpinus* and *S. fontinalis*, studies have revealed that the *LDH-1*, *AAT-5*, and *GPI-3* loci are genetically linked to the sex-determination locus (May et al., 1989). As is the case in channel catfish, the markers map to the other side of the centromere from the sex-determination locus, and because they do not segregate with sex in other char species, sex linkage in *S. alpinus* may have been acquired by a species-specific translocation event that fused an autosome and a sex chromosome. Analysis of sex linkage is not restricted to isozyme mobility variants: null alleles at the MDH-4 locus in *P. reticulata* show partial sex-linkage (Fujio and MacAranas, 1989).

As was mentioned for phenotypic markers, it is important to note that the presence of novel isozymes restricted to one sex does not necessarily indicate that the marker is sex linked, since sex-specific gene-expression patterns may be responsible in some cases (see Withler et al., 1986).

5.4.3. DNA markers

DNA markers provide useful tools for examining sex linkage in fish since DNA structure is not anticipated to change with altered physiology or environments. Further, examination of DNA sequence organization on sex chromosomes can provide important insights into the evolutionary processes that are operating to influence sex-chromosome structure, and ultimately, can yield information on the conservation (or lack thereof) of sex-determination processes among species.

Some genes that are associated with the Y chromosome in humans, including the mammalian sex-determining locus *Sry* and a closely linked gene *Zfy*, are present in fish genomes, but are not associated with the sex chromosomes in trout (Ferreiro et al., 1989), medaka (Fukada et al., 1995), channel catfish (Tiersch et al., 1992), *Anthias squamipinnis* (Wachtel et al., 1991), turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*) (Husebye et al., 1994), and chinook salmon (Devlin, unpublished). Similarly, in *O. niloticus*, no sex-specific arrangement was observed for either *Zfy* or a sequence derived from the W chromosome of chickens (McConnell et al., 1996). These findings indicate that *Sry* and *Zfy* genes exist in piscine genomes and thus may play a role in sex-determination pathways, but probably they are not the primary signal used to control sex in genetically determined species.

In some cases, genes and/or tightly associated sequences have been cloned that provide DNA markers tightly linked to the sex-determination locus. In *X. maculatus*, sequences related to the *v-erbB* oncogene cosegregate with a sex-linked melanoma-forming locus (Zechel et al., 1988). Linked DNA markers near the sex-linked *Tu* locus are responsible for melanoma formation in *Xiphophorus* (Schartl, 1988), and further analysis revealed that the sex-linked *Xmrk* gene is duplicated in *Tu* mutant fish (Schartl, 1990; Schartl and Adam, 1992; Weis and Schartl, 1998). A rapid PCR-based sex test employing the *Xmrk* locus has been developed for *Xiphophorus* (Coughlan et al., 1999), and *Xmrk* locus has been mapped cytogenetically by in situ hybridization to the subtelomeric region of the long arm of the *X. maculatus* sex chromosomes (Nanda et al., 2000). In medaka, *O. latipes*, which possess an

XY system, a random DNA clone that is very tightly linked to the sex-determination locus has been isolated from an inbred strain. This marker is not sex-linked in all medaka strains, but the sequence appears to be conserved within the genus (Matsuda et al., 1997). Similarly, another sex-linked marker in medaka appears to be composed of repetitive DNA and is not found in all strains (Matsuda et al., 1998). These markers are genetically tightly linked to the sex-determination locus due to suppression of crossing over in males rather than due to tight physical linkage (Matsuda et al., 1999), a finding confirmed by detailed construction of a linkage map for this species (Naruse et al., 2000). In situ localization of markers linked to the sex-determination locus has allowed cytogenetic identification (Fig. 7A) of the Y chromosome in medaka (Matsuda et al., 1998), and, more recently, identification of the sex-determination locus itself (Fig. 7B).

In rainbow trout, two polymorphic DNA sequences located on the Y chromosome have been identified by RAPD analysis (Iturra et al., 1998). One sequence (P9) is present in all males and absent from all females in the Mount Lassen trout strain, but in another strain (Scottish), it can also be found in 62% of females. The other sex-linked sequence characterized was found in approximately 75% of males and no females in both strains examined. These findings clearly reveal the molecular diversity that exists on the Y chromosome of rainbow trout, findings which correlate with the observation that heteromorphic chromosomes can be identified in some but not all (Thorgaard, 1983b) rainbow trout strains (see Appendix B). The P9 probe has also been used in in situ hybridization studies with coho salmon (Iturra et al., 2001), where it was found to hybridize near a growth hormone sequence known to be sex linked in this species (see below).

Ribosomal gene sequences (NORs) have been identified cytogenetically on sex chromosomes in some fish (Li and Gold, 1991; Ren et al., 1993; Khuda Bukhsh and Datta, 1997). In rainbow trout, Atlantic salmon and arctic charr (Pendas et al., 1994; Reed and Phillips, 1997), in situ hybridization has not revealed a sex-specific organization of the NORs. However, a 5S rDNA gene cluster is linked to autosomal NORs in rainbow trout, but in addition, a 5S gene cluster has been detected in heterochromatic regions of the X chromosome (Moran et al., 1996). 5S sequences are also linked to the short arm of the Y chromosome in chinook salmon (Stein et al., 2001).

Molecular genetic genome mapping studies are beginning to provide a wealth of genetic markers for segregation studies. The sex chromosomes have been identified in a rainbow trout linkage map generated using a variety of microsatellite and AFLP DNA markers. This map, generated from doubled haploids, has located the sex-determining locus in a distal position on the sex chromosomes (Young et al., 1998). Similarly, for medaka, the sex chromosomes were identified in a detailed mapping studies and several DNA markers have been found to map closely with the sex-determination locus (Naruse et al., 2000; Sato et al., 2001). Two Y-chromosome linked AFLP markers have also been identified in the threespined stickleback (Griffiths et al., 2000), consistent with identification of sex-linked isozyme loci in this species (Withler et al., 1986).

As described above, degeneration of sex chromosomes can often be associated with the accumulation of repetitive DNA, pseudogenes, or transposable elements. A repeat sequence termed Bkm (isolated as a minor satellite DNA component from the banded krait snake genome) is comprised of simple tetranucleotide arrays (GATA and GACA). These sequences have been associated with the W and Y chromosomes of several nonpiscine

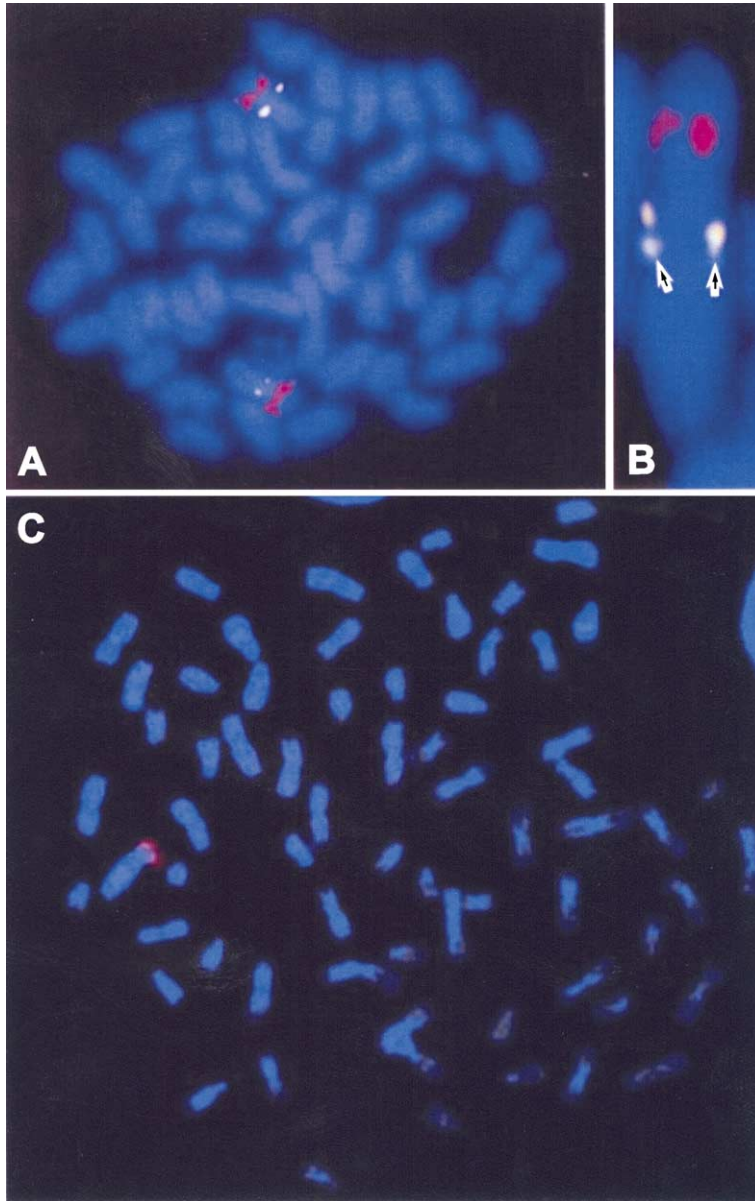


Fig. 7. Fluorescence in situ hybridization of fish metaphase chromosomes. (A) Sex-linked markers SL-1 (yellow) and SL-2 (red) hybridize to both the X and Y chromosomes of medaka. (B) A medaka sex chromosome with three different probes (*SL2*, *SL1*, sex-determining region, *SD*). Signals of a BAC clone containing the sex-determining region are light blue. (Unpublished, provided by M. Matsuda et al.). (C) Identification of the Y chromosome in chinook salmon by in situ hybridization (red) of the Y-linked DNA marker OTY1. (From Stein et al., 2001, by permission of Karger Publishers, Basel).

species, and have been used as probes to examine whether such repeats are also sex linked in fish. Although present in the genome, they do not appear to be organized in a sex-specific fashion in rainbow trout (Lloyd et al., 1989), channel catfish (Tiersch et al., 1992), mosquitofish *G. affinis* (Patel et al., 1993), turbot (Husebye et al., 1994), or the protogynous *A. squamipinnis* (Wachtel et al., 1991). However, indications that Bkm-like sequences can be associated with the heterogametic sex of several fish species, including *X. maculata* and rainbow trout, have also been reported (Ewulonu, 1987). GACA and GATA repeats have been found associated with the Y chromosome in *P. reticulata* strains (Nanda et al., 1990; Nanda et al., 1992), and other *Poeciliid* species were associated with other sex-specific repeat sequences (Nanda et al., 1992). Interestingly, *P. reticulata* obtained from the wild in Trinidad do not show any evidence of these repetitive DNA sequences on their sex chromosomes (Hornaday et al., 1994), suggesting that selective pressures influencing tolerance for these sequences in the genome may differ between wild and laboratory environments.

A microsatellite marker *Str-A9* has been found to be tightly associated with the sex-determination locus in brown trout *S. trutta* (Prodohl et al., 1994), and a satellite DNA sequence associated with telomeres and centromeres is located in an interstitial position on a neo-Y chromosome in the Antarctic icefish, *Chionodraco hamatus* (Capriglione et al., 1994). However, repetitive telomeric sequences (which are variable and located on the ends of all chromosomes) were not observed to be organized in a sex-specific fashion in channel catfish (Tiersch et al., 1992) or chinook salmon (Devlin, unpublished data).

Species in the genus *Leporinus* utilize a ZW system of sex determination (Galetti et al., 1995; Mestriner et al., 1995). *L. elongatus* has a W chromosome that is very large relative to the Z chromosome, suggesting that substantial accumulation of new sequences may have occurred. Subtractive hybridization has been used to isolate repetitive DNA sequences from the sex chromosomes of *L. elongatus* (Nakayama et al., 1994), and one DNA clone detects sequences found on both the Z and W chromosomes, whereas another is restricted to the W chromosome. By comparing gonadal phenotypes with cytogenetic and molecular results, these authors identified exceptional individuals where these three characteristics did not correlate. These exceptions all contained a W chromosome cytogenetically, but in one case, a phenotypic female lacked the W-specific DNA sequence (Nakayama et al., 1994). Such exceptional individuals may have arisen by recombination or deletion events on the sex chromosomes, and provide evidence of the fluidity of W sex-chromosome structure in fish at the molecular level.

Other repetitive DNA sequences have been isolated from piscine sex chromosomes. Lake trout *Salvelinus namaycush* contains a Y chromosome cytogenetically distinguishable from the X by the absence of a quinacrine bright heterochromatic band (Phillips and Ihssen, 1984, 1985), and microdissection of the Y chromosome yielded repetitive DNA sequences that were located on both X and Y sex chromosomes of lake trout (Reed et al., 1995). Interestingly, paint probes developed from the short and long arms of the *S. namaycush* Y chromosome hybridize to autosomes in *Oncorhynchus* species, suggesting that the sex chromosomes have, at least in part, evolved independently in the salmonids (Phillips et al., 2001). In chinook salmon, subtractive hybridization has been used to isolate a DNA sequence from the Y chromosome (Devlin et al., 1991). This sequence (*OtY1*) has been used to clone flanking DNA, revealing that it is part of a 8-kb repeat DNA

family present approximately 300 times in the genome (representing a total of 2.4 MB of Y-chromosomal DNA) and organized into at least six clusters of direct-tandem arrays (Devlin et al., 1998). The sequence of this repeat is composed of degenerated retrotransposon sequences (unpublished data), and homologous sequences are observed by PCR and Southern blotting (at much lower copy numbers) in females (Devlin et al., 1991, 1994) and other salmonid species (Devlin et al., 1998), but they are not organized as large arrays of direct-tandem repeats and do not show any sex-specific arrangement. A portion of this sequence has also been independently isolated from chinook salmon using single primer PCR amplification (Clifton and Rodriguez, 1997). The *OtY1* sequence has been used to cytogenetically identify the chinook salmon Y chromosome by in situ hybridization (Stein et al., 2001), and is found located at the distal end of the short arm of an acrocentric chromosome (Fig. 7C). This chromosomal location is consistent with genetic mapping data that found the sex-determination locus in chinook salmon to be located in a chromosomally distal position (Devlin et al., 2001), and in association with a previously characterized variable DAPI-bright band (Phillips et al., 1985). This Y chromosomal sequence is found in many chinook strains examined (Devlin et al., 1991; Clifton and Rodriguez, 1997), although some natural variation has been detected (unpublished observations) and incomplete association of this marker with male development (potentially due to sex reversal effects—see Section 6.4) has also been reported (Nagler et al., 2001). Recently, a repeated retrotransposon sequence (*XIR*-like) has also been discovered on the Y chromosome of *X. maculatus* adjacent to the *Xmrk* locus (Nanda et al., 2000). In situ hybridization studies revealed that the sequence is located at a terminal position on the Y chromosome, but is not present in all strains of *X. maculatus*.

The accumulation and divergence of, and relaxation of selective pressures on, DNA sequence on sex-limited chromosomes is clearly exemplified by the presence of pseudogenes. In mammals, degenerated genes have been identified on the Y chromosome (e.g. Carrozzo et al., 1992; Legouis et al., 1994; Weller et al., 1995), suggesting that mutational damage is not efficiently selected against in these chromosomal regions (see Section 5.3). In salmonids, growth hormone (GH) genes are present in a duplicated form (e.g. Devlin, 1993) on the autosomes arising from the tetraploidization of the genome approximately 30 million years ago (Allendorf and Thorgaard, 1984; McKay et al., 1996). However, in addition to autosomal GH genes, male-specific GH gene sequences have also been identified in chinook, coho, chum and pink salmon (but not sockeye or Atlantic salmon nor rainbow trout) (Du et al., 1993; Forbes et al., 1994; Devlin et al., 2001), and more recently in some Japanese salmon species (Nakayama et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 2001). Analysis of this sex-linked GH sequence reveals it is structurally damaged and is a pseudogene homologous to the autosomal type-2 GH gene (Du et al., 1993). The Y-linked GH sequence segregates independently from the autosomal or pseudoautosomal GH2 locus, suggesting that it arose on the Y chromosome by gene a duplication and/or transposition event (Devlin et al., 2001). That only certain salmonids species contain this Y-linked GH pseudogene implies that the sequence probably arose shortly after the evolutionary origin of salmonids, but was subsequently lost in some lineages. This is also consistent with observations that this nonfunctional pseudogene can be deleted from some individuals in wild salmon populations in Japan (Zhang et al., 2001) and North America (unpublished observations).

5.5. Polyfactorial control of sex determination

Since the pathways involved in sex determination are very complex, it is not surprising to find that many genes are known to influence the process. In many fish species, crosses do not consistently produce 1:1 sex ratios, indicating that Mendelian segregation of sex chromosomes is not responsible for sex determination. In these cases, sex is determined (under constant environmental conditions) by the balance of male and female determining genes, factors that may not be equivalently distributed to offspring. For example, if a male that possessed just sufficient genetic factors to induce male development is crossed with a female with many (or strong) female-determining loci, the resultant progeny will have a high probability of obtaining a preponderance of female-determining factors, and few males may be observed.

5.5.1. Sex ratios from regular crosses

The developmental decision of whether to develop as a male or a female is decided by the relative number and strength of sex-determining genetic factors located on both the sex chromosomes and the autosomes. In species where individual crosses regularly yield sex ratios not differing from 1:1, monofactorial determination of sex with single or tightly linked genetic factors located on a single chromosome is suspected. However, many fish species show deviation from this ratio when sex ratios are examined in individual broods. For example, in *Xiphophorus*, sex ratios typically range between 0.33 and 0.67 male, the variance arising from various combinations of sex-linked and autosomal sex-determination modifiers (Kallman, 1984a). Similarly, variable sex ratios have recently been reported among separate families in *D. labrax* L. (Gorshkov et al., 1999).

In several model species, exceptions have been identified where the sex-chromosome constitution and phenotypic sex of individuals do not correspond (Yamamoto, 1969). In these cases, autosomal genes capable of affecting sex determination can override the sex-determining activity of the primary sex chromosomes. Such effects have been observed in guppies, medaka, and *Xiphophorus* (see Yamamoto, 1969; Kallman, 1984a,b; Kallman and Bao, 1987). In guppies, wild populations have 1:1 sex ratios (Snelson and Wetherington, 1980), whereas “older” laboratory strains tend to have female-biased sex ratios (Farr, 1981). Rather than being autosomal, this effect is genetically linked to the Y chromosome, and may arise from mate selection pressures, and/or degeneration and reduced viability of the Y chromosome. Breeding experiments with medaka have shown that the frequency of autosomal sex-determination factors can be modified by genetic selection (Aida, 1936), demonstrating that a continuum of genetic sex determination factors exists in some species.

In tilapia, breeding studies indicate that sex is determined by major sex chromosomes (both XY and ZW systems), but that autosomal influences are also operating in many strains (Hammerman and Avtalion, 1979; Wohlfarth and Wedekind, 1991; Trombka and Avtalion, 1993). For example, in *O. niloticus*, an XY system is primarily operating. However, sex ratios are variable and differ significantly among broods, suggesting that polyfactorial influences on sex determination are able to override the sex-determining activity of the major sex chromosomes (Jensen and Shelton, 1979; Scott et al., 1989; Mair et al., 1991b; Tuan et al., 1999b). *O. niloticus* appears to possess a substantial

capability for modification of sex ratio, as heritabilities for sex ratio appear to be quite high ($h^2=0.26$; Lester et al., 1989). This plasticity has allowed detection of exceptional individuals where phenotypic sex does not correlate with the constitution of the major sex chromosomes: An XY female that produced YY progeny by gynogenesis has been identified (Scott et al., 1989), and sex ratios in some regular crosses approximated 3M:1F, suggesting that some females may be XY individuals that have followed a female mode of development (Mair et al., 1991b). *O. niloticus* that have a YY genotype produce broods containing a very high proportion of males (average >95%, ranging to 100%), indicating that autosomal influences can be minimized such that sex determination is controlled largely, but not exclusively, by the major sex chromosomes (Scott et al., 1989; Mair et al., 1997; Tuan et al., 1999b; Beardmore et al., 2001). In *O. aureus*, the reciprocal situation has been observed, where a ZW system with autosomal influences was apparent: Some ZW males were identified which produced a 3F:1M sex ratio (Mair et al., 1991a). *O. hornorum* also appears to be controlled by both sex-chromosomal and autosomal influences, as sex ratios among broods range between 47% and 72% males (Obi, 1988).

In common carp, an important discovery has provided evidence for autosomal influences on sex determination, and has revealed how mutations in single genes can cause a complete reversal of the mode of sex determination. During the course of gynogenesis experiments, a recessive autosomal mutation (*mas*) was discovered in common carp that causes XX; *mas/mas* individuals to become masculinized and develop an intersex gonad or a testis (Komen et al., 1992b,c). These masculinized XX individuals can develop as functional males, and in crosses with XX; *mas/+* females, can sire both XX; *mas/mas* male and XX; *mas/+* female progeny (Komen et al., 1992a). Within these strains, the nonmutated + chromosome has essentially been switched from an autosome to a W chromosome, and the original sex chromosomes are no longer involved in the sex-determination process. Although the mutation is usually recessive (Komen et al., 1992a), rare *mas/+* males can be obtained under unfavourable conditions, leaving the possibility that the mutation may be partially dominant and arose by either gain or a loss of function. A loss-of-function mutation would imply that the normal role of the *mas* gene is to allow female sex differentiation to proceed, and that simply prevention of female development is sufficient to induce male development. Alternatively, a gain-of-function mutation would suggest that male development requires active modification of the sex-determination pathway to encourage testicular rather than ovarian development. Future studies on the nature of the *mas* gene function should be very revealing with regard to sex-determination mechanisms in fish.

5.5.2. Hybridization

The previous section has indicated how male- and female-determining genes are located throughout the genome of many fish species. In some cases, the strength of particular factors overrides all others to allow the development of a single sex chromosome, whereas in other cases, the strengths of all factors are more equivalent and the existence of several minor sex chromosomes may be apparent. In both cases, population genetic forces will tend to create systems where the average sex ratio is 1:1 (Bull, 1983). However, between closely related species, striking differences in sex-factor number,

strength, and location can exist, and when such genomes are placed together in interspecific hybrids, abnormal sex ratios may result.

In tilapia, single-sex populations are desirable to improve productivity in aquaculture. Interspecific tilapia hybrids can produce variable sex ratios, but in some cases, all-male or predominantly all-male progeny result (Avtalion and Hammerman, 1978; Hulata et al., 1983; Majumdar and McAndrew, 1983; Lahav and Lahav, 1990; Wohlfarth and Wedekind, 1991; Mair et al., 1995; Beardmore et al., 2001). For example, in crosses between *O. niloticus* (XX) females and *O. aureus* (ZZ) males, sex ratios vary between 50% and 100% males, whereas *O. urolepis hornorum* males tend to produce a high proportion of males in crosses with other tilapia species. Reciprocal crosses can produce different sex ratios in some cases, indicating that the strengths and chromosomal distributions of male and female determining factors differ between tilapia species.

O. latipes females crossed to *O. curvinotus* males results in all-female progeny (Hamaguchi and Sakaizumi, 1991), whereas in *O. latipes* by *O. celebensis* hybrids, males lack spermatozoa and some fish are missing gonads completely (Iwamatsu et al., 1984). In this latter case, genetic crosses indicate that polygenic female-determining factors in *O. latipes* can override the masculinizing effect of the *O. curvinotus* Y chromosome. Similarly, in salmonid hybrids, sex differentiation and fertility can be impaired (Chevassus, 1983). Some indication that intersexuality, sterility, and single-sex groups arise in hybrids of *Cyprinodon* has also been reported (Cokendolpher, 1980), and in crosses between *P. nigrofasciata* females and *P. caudofasciata* males, all F₁ progeny are females (Yamamoto, 1969).

5.6. Crosses involving sex-reversed individuals

Fish provide excellent experimental systems for analysis of sex determination due to the natural lability of this process and a capacity for functional sex inversion in many species. In many cases, manipulations involving hormone treatments or temperature shocks (see Section 6) are able to modify sexual phenotype independent of the individual's genotype. This capability has allowed investigators to perform crosses between individuals of the same genetic sex, and examination of the ratios and genotypes of the resulting progeny can yield important information regarding the mechanism of sex determination employed by the species in question. Examples of progeny ratios obtained from various species of fish that have been sex reversed are shown in Table 1 for masculinized fish, and Table 2 for feminized animals.

In heterogametic male species, crosses between feminized XY males and regular XY males will yield zygotes with XX, XY and YY genotypes in a 1:2:1 ratio. If the Y chromosome has not degenerated sufficiently to be lethal in a homozygous condition, then the sex ratio of these crosses will be 3:1, males to females, whereas if the Y is homozygous lethal, sex ratios will be 2:1. In practice, it can be very difficult to accurately distinguish sex ratios of either 67% or 75%, and thus it is preferable to test cross progeny males to determine whether they are of XY or YY genotype (producing equal numbers of males and females in the former case, and all males in the latter). Conversely, masculinization of genetic females in an XY system will yield XX males that in crosses to regular XX females will yield all-female progeny. This approach has formed the basis for production of monosex stocks in several aquacultured species (Donaldson, 1996).

Table 1

Sex ratio of progeny from masculinized females crossed to regular females

Species	Sex ratio (%female)	WW survival?	Sex-determination system ^a	References
<i>Betta splendens</i>	8/11 crosses had 100%, 1 had 96%, 1 had 71%, 1 had 55%		XY, and XY + A	(Lowe and Larkin, 1975) ^b
<i>Betta splendens</i>	100%		XY	(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1994a)
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	100%		XY	(Yamamoto and Kajishima, 1969)
<i>Cichlasoma nigrofasciatum</i>	81%		XY + A	(George and Pandian, 1996)
<i>Clarias lazera</i>	100%		XY	(Liu et al., 1996b)
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	100%		XY	(Wu et al., 1990; Komen et al., 1995)
<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i>	100%		XY	(Boney et al., 1984; Shelton, 1986)
<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	5–50%		A ^c	(Blázquez et al., 1999)
<i>Gnathopogon caeruleus</i>	70–100%		XY + A	(Fujioka, 1993; Fujioka, 2001)
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	100%		XY	(Johnstone et al., 1979b; Okada et al., 1979; Olito and Brock, 1991)
<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	92–100%		XY	(Hunter et al., 1983; Devlin et al., 2001)
<i>Oreochromis aureus</i>	66–76%	yes	ZW + A	(Mair et al., 1991a; Guerrero, 1975)
<i>Oreochromis hornorum</i>	75%		ZW + A	(Obi, 1989)
<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>	75–100%		XY + A	(Clemens and Inslee, 1968)
	100%			(Pandian and Varadaraj, 1990)
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	90–100%		XY + A	(Calhoun and Shelton, 1983; Scott et al., 1989; Mair et al., 1991b; Guilherme, 1992)
<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	F		XY	(Yamamoto, 1958)
<i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i>	90.3%		XY + A	(Tabata, 1991)
	91.1–100%			(Yamamoto, 1999)
<i>Perca flavescens</i>	100%		XY	(Malison and Garcia Abiado, 1996)
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>	100%		XY	(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1993a)
<i>Puntius gonionotus</i>	87.8–100% ^d		XY + A	(Pongthana et al., 1999)
<i>Salmo salar</i>	100%		XY	(Johnstone and Youngson, 1984)
	100%		XY	(Galbreath et al., 1994)
<i>Stizostedion vitreum</i>	100%		XY	(Malison and Garcia Abiado, 1996)

^a 'A' indicates either an influence from autosomal genetic factors or environmental influences.^b Fish were sex-reversed by ovariectomy and gonadal regrowth.^c Results differ from karyotypic information in Appendix B.^d 1/11 fish examined gave a sex ratio of 1:1.

Table 2

Sex ratio of progeny from feminized males crossed to regular males

Species	Sex ratio (%males)	YY survival	Sex-determination system ^a	References
<i>Betta splendens</i> ^b	100% (triploid)		XY	(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1992b)
<i>Betta splendens</i> ^b	94–100% (gynogen)	no	XY	(George et al., 1994)
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	75%	yes	XY	(Yamamoto and Kajishima, 1969)
<i>Cichlasoma nigrofasciatum</i>	75–80%	no	XY	(George and Pandian, 1996)
<i>Clarias lazera</i>	75%	yes	XY	(Liu et al., 1996b)
<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i>	67–75%	yes	XY	(Davis et al., 1990)
<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>	75%	yes	XY	(Hunter et al., 1982)
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	75%	yes	XY	(Johnstone et al., 1979b)
<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	80%	yes	XY	(Devlin et al., 2001)
<i>Oreochromis aureus</i>	68–100%		ZW + A	(Mair et al., 1991a; Lahav, 1993; Melard et al., 1994; Melard, 1995)
<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>	57–82%	yes	XY	(Varadaraj and Pandian, 1989)
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	78–79%	yes	XY + A	(Mair et al., 1991b)
	75%			(Guilherme, 1992)
	6.7–98.6			(Tuan et al., 1999a)
	42.4–54.4 ^c			
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> (YY × YY)	95.6%	yes	XY + A	(Mair et al., 1997)
<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	67–75%	strain specific	XY	(Yamamoto, 1953, 1955, 1964)
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>	69–75%	yes, low	XY	(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1992a)

^a 'A' indicates either an influence from autosomal genetic factors or environmental influences.^b By polar body retention.^c Crosses between XY females and XX males.

In female heterogametic systems, the same principles apply. Crosses between sex-reversed ZW males and ZW females will yield either 67% or 75% females, depending on the viability of the WW genotype, and crosses between ZZ females and ZZ males produce all-male progeny. In polygenic systems, crosses between sex-reversed females and regular females should theoretically produce a female-biased sex ratio, and crosses between sex-reversed males and regular males would be skewed towards males. However, since it is not possible to know the genotypic sex of individuals in such crosses (which arise from unknown mixtures of autosomal sex factors), sex ratios among individual broods would be 1:1 in some, and in others biased towards the sex opposite to that produced by the reversal treatment. Again, in practice, the segregation of polygenic factors makes such analyses very difficult due to the continuum of sex ratios observed among broods.

In the absence of information about the sex-determining mechanism used in particular fish species, crosses involving sex-reversed individuals can reveal the mode employed depending on the sex ratios obtained. For conclusive determinations, reciprocal crosses involving sex-reversed animals should be performed. Thus, in test crosses with regular animals, if feminized animals produce a mixture of male and female progeny, and individual masculinized fish produce either all-female or mixed broods, male heterogamety is strongly implicated. Conversely, if feminized animals produce broods of either all

males or mixtures of male and female, and masculinized fish produce no monosex broods, female heterogamety is suspected. Obtaining both sexes from both feminized and masculinized animals strongly implies that sex is determined by polygenic or environmental factors, although the ratios of progeny obtained may indicate that major sex chromosomes are playing a significant role.

5.7. *Unconventional genetic mechanisms*

In most fish species, genetic information is contributed from male and female parents to form diploid offspring. However, contributions can be altered naturally or experimentally such that one parent may provide no genetic information, or may contribute additional entire chromosome sets (Donaldson and Hunter, 1982; Thorgaard, 1983a; Donaldson, 1996). Because haploid fish do not survive in most cases past embryonic or larval stages, only combinations of chromosome sets greater than two have been examined in detail in fish. For example, depending on the contributions made in a particular cross, zygotes can be formed that are: (1) triploid, having two chromosome sets derived from one parent (usually their mother) and one from the other parent, (2) diploid gynogenotes, having two sets from the mother and none from the father, or (3) androgenotes, having no sets from the mother and two from the father. Other combinations are also possible for producing tetraploid, pentaploid, and hexaploid individuals in some species (see below). Chromosome set manipulation techniques provide an opportunity to examine sex-determination mechanism by altering the pattern and balance of gene contribution that occurs in normal crosses.

5.7.1. *Induced gynogenesis*

Gynogenesis is a mode of reproduction whereby offspring are formed exclusively from maternal genetic information (Thorgaard, 1983a; Solar et al., 1991; Mair, 1993; Donaldson and Devlin, 1996; Arai, 2001). This occurs either naturally by the exclusion of paternal genetic information from the zygote (see below), or experimentally by the destruction of DNA with UV or ionizing radiation. In both cases, the sperm remains functional to fertilize the egg and activate development, but little or no genetic information is contributed to the zygote.

Two types of gynogenesis can occur, involving either meiotic or mitotic chromosomes (Onozato, 1984). In mitotic gynogenesis, the maternal nucleus normally replicates during the first embryonic cell cycle to form two identical haploid chromosome sets. The application of physical shocks at this time (either temperature or pressure are commonly used) can induce these two chromosome sets to remain in the same nucleus and form a diploid cell. Since the two chromosome sets in a mitotic gynogen are derived from a replicated haploid maternal nucleus, these cells are completely homozygous for all loci. Alternatively, meiotic gynogens are formed by shock treatments that induce retention of the second polar body formed after the second meiotic division. The polar body is retained in the egg and fuses with the maternal pronucleus to form a diploid zygotic nucleus. The polar body contains a maternal chromosome set produced during the nonreductional division of meiosis, but is not genetically identical to the haploid egg nucleus due to recombination events that can exchange genetic information among chromosome pairs.

Thus, meiotic gynogens are not homozygous for all loci in their genomes, but do have a higher than normal probability of being isoallelic for loci that map to distal chromosomal regions.

For investigation of sex-determination mechanisms, induced gynogenesis allows examination of the strength and distribution of sex-determination genes, which gave rise to the female phenotype in the mother. For example, in XY or XO systems, female individuals contain only X chromosomes, and meiotic or mitotic gynogenetic progeny derived from them also can contain only X chromosomes and thus develop as females. However, while obtaining all-female progeny from a gynogenetic experiment is consistent with an XX mode of sex determination, it is not conclusive evidence, since special circumstances involving genetic exchange or nonreductional gynogenesis in ZW females may also produce all-female gynogenetic progeny (see below).

If female differentiation is determined by a dominant genetic factor located on the W chromosome, then female individuals are heterozygous (ZW) for sex-determining loci. During mitotic gynogenesis, haploid nuclei either have a Z or a W chromosome, which becomes duplicated after shock treatments. If the W chromosome is not lethal in a homozygous condition, then equal numbers of ZZ males and WW females will result; however, if the W chromosome is not homozygous viable, mitotic gynogenetic progeny from a ZW female will produce only male progeny (assuming the absence of meiotic recombination between the sex-determination locus and the lethal locus).

Meiotic gynogens derived from ZW species can be of several forms. If the sex-determination locus is genetically tightly linked to the centromere (either physically close, or recombination is inhibited in the region), then the reductional division of meiosis will separate the Z and W chromosomes to produce cell types with homozygous chromatids prior to the second meiotic division. In this case, the retention of the second polar body will result in the production of homozygous ZZ or WW zygotes in equal proportions, and again, if WW individuals are not viable, then only male progeny will result. If the sex-determination locus is not genetically tightly linked to the centromere in a ZW system, recombination may cause the exchange of sex-determination loci between centromeres to produce heterozygous ZW chromatids on each chromosome. In this case, sex-determination loci derived from both the Z and W chromosomes may be retained in meiotic gynogens, and in the absence of lethality effects, sex ratios of progeny would be either: (1) essentially 50% female in the case of very low recombination (progeny are all ZZ or WW); (2) between 50% and 100% female if some recombination occurs (67% if random), where progeny comprise equal numbers of ZZ and WW individuals and the remainder ZW; or (3) 100% ZW females in cases where an obligate exchange event with high interference (common in fish) occurs between the centromere and the sex-determination locus. To provide conclusive evidence of sex-determining genotypes in meiotic gynogens, other information, derived from progeny testing or crosses involving sex-reversed individuals to determine the genotype of offspring, may be required.

In the absence of significant autosomal influences on sex determination, sex ratio data in gynogens can be effectively used to genetically map the sex-determination locus relative to the centromere. In the tilapia *O. niloticus*, XY females have been used to map the sex-determination locus by gynogenesis to a position 68.9 map units from the centromere (Mair et al., 1991b). Gynogenesis can also be used to examine and to map genotypes in

hormonally sex-reversed individuals (e.g. catfish; Liu et al., 1996a). Feminized XY individuals can be analyzed in an analogous fashion to ZW females, except that resulting heterozygous progeny will be male (XY) rather than female (ZW). In chinook salmon, gynogenesis has been used to map the sex-determination locus to a distal position on the sex chromosomes (approximately 40 cM) and tightly linked to two Y-linked DNA markers (Devlin et al., 2001).

If sex is not determined by a single genetic locus but is controlled by polygenic autosomal sex-determination loci, then gynogenesis will usually produce female-biased sex ratios in the progeny. The original parental genotype must have been sufficiently biased to have induced female development; however, in most cases these individuals would not be homozygous for female-determining factors. Thus, during meiosis, heterozygous sex-determining loci may segregate alleles to produce gametes that have a sex bias that differs from the original female parent. When such chromosome sets are combined in meiotic gynogenesis, or diploidized in the case of mitotic gynogenesis, zygotes can be formed with sufficient male sex-determining loci to induce testicular development.

Table 3 lists examples where natural and induced gynogenesis have been reported in fish species. A bias towards the production of all-female gynogenetic progeny is apparent, suggesting (but not demonstrating—see above) that in many cases females are the homogametic sex. Where pure XY systems have been demonstrated by other means, essentially all-female progeny are obtained by gynogenesis, (e.g. Refstie et al., 1982). The presence of both male and female gynogenotes obtained in many cases of induced gynogenesis (Table 3) leaves uncertain which type of sex-determination system is operating. However, the presence of both sexes in gynogenetic progeny does allow exclusion with some certainty that a purely female homogametic system is operating, and implicates involvement of either ZW or polyfactorial controls. Test crossing or careful analysis of progeny ratios anticipated from meiotic events can assist in determining whether ZW or polygenic systems are operating (e.g. Van Eenennaam et al., 1999b). Where a mixture of major sex chromosomes and autosomal influences are known to be operating (e.g. *O. niloticus*), both sexes are obtained in meiotic and mitotic gynogenotes but at different ratios from separate female parents, reflecting the distribution of autosomal sex-determining factors among individuals (Müller-Belecke and Hörstgen-Schwark, 1995). Interestingly, in this case, some female parents that produce male and female mitogynes produced only females meiogynes, and male mitogynes crossed to regular females produce sex ratios ranging between all male and all female. These observations are consistent with previous results, indicating a major XY sex-determining system with autosomal genes able to override this system in some individuals (see above).

An unusual result has been obtained involving genotypes of some channel catfish derived from meiotic gynogenesis of a sex-reversed XY individual. In this species, an XY sex-determination system is operating based on crosses involving sex-reversed males and isozyme segregation analysis, and the sex-determination locus is located very close to the centromere (Davis et al., 1990; Liu et al., 1993, 1996a). Consequently, meiotic or mitotic gynogenotes from an XY female should be primarily of two types (XX or YY), yet progeny testing revealed that some males could produce both sexes (Goudie et al., 1995a), indicating unconventional meiosis may occur in XY females, that obligate exchange

Table 3

Sex ratios of meiotic and mitotic gynogenetic progeny

Species	Sex ratio	Sex-determination system ^a	References
<i>Acipenser transmontanus</i>	18–50% M	ZW + A	(Van Eenennaam et al., 1999b)
<i>Barbus barbus</i>	M and F	ZW	(Castelli and Philippart, 1993)
<i>Betta splendens</i> (XX female)	100% F	XY	(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1994b)
<i>Betta splendens</i> (XY female)	96–100% F	XY	(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1992b; George et al., 1994)
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	100% F	XY	(Bende, 1982; Zhou et al., 1983)
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	100% F	clonal	(Gomel'skii and Cherfas, 1982; Vasil'yeva, 1990; Gomelsky et al., 1992; Cherfas et al., 1994)
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	all F or all M		(Oshiro, 1987)
<i>Carassius auratus</i> 3n	M and F		(Shen et al., 1983)
<i>Clarias gariepinus</i>	100% F	XY ^b	(Galbusera et al., 2000)
<i>Clarias macrocephalus</i>	100% F	XY	(Na-Nakorn, 1995)
<i>Coregonus peled</i>	M and F	A	(Polyakova, 1987)
<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i>	100% F	XY	(Stanley et al., 1978; Stanley, 1981; Jensen et al., 1983)
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	93–100% F	XY + A	(Nagy et al., 1978; 1981, 1984; Hollebecq et al., 1986; Linhart et al., 1986, 1989; Wu et al., 1986, 1990; Komen et al., 1991, 1992c; Cherfas et al., 1994)
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> (mas/+ females)	63% F	XY + A	(Komen et al., 1992c)
<i>Danio rerio</i>	100% M	A	(Streisinger et al., 1981; Hoerstgen Schwark, 1993)
<i>Esox masquinongy</i>	67% M	ZW or A	(Dabrowski et al., 2000)
<i>Gnathopogon caeruleus</i>	87.3% F	XY + A	(Fujioka, 1998)
<i>Hypophthalmichthys molitrix</i>	100% F	XY	(Mirza and Shelton, 1988; Xia et al., 1990)
<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (XX female)	100% F	XY	(Goudie et al., 1995b)
<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (XY female)	M and F, 51.7% M	XY + A?	(Goudie et al., 1995a; Liu et al., 1996a)
<i>Limanda yokohamae</i>	F	XY	(Kakimoto et al., 1994a; Aida and Arai, 1998)
<i>Menidia clarkhubbsi</i>	100% F	clonal	(Echelle et al., 1988)
<i>Misgurnus anguillicaudatus</i> (2n and 4n)	94–100% F	XY	(Suzuki et al., 1985; Arai et al., 1993; Nomura et al., 1998; Arai, personal communication)
<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>	77.3–100% F	XY	(Refstie et al., 1982; Piferrer et al., 1994a)
<i>Oncorhynchus masou</i>	F	XY	(K. Arai, personal communication; Arai, 2001)
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	98–100% F	XY	(Chourrout and Quillet, 1982; Feist et al., 1995; Schmelzing and Gall, 1991)
<i>Oncorhynchus rhodurus</i>	F	XY	(Kobayashi et al., 1994)

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

Species	Sex ratio	Sex-determination system ^a	References
<i>Oreochromis aureus</i>	72.2–94.7% F	ZW + A	(Penman et al., 1987; Avtalion and Don, 1990; Mair et al., 1991a)
<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>	100% F	primarily XY	(Penman et al., 1987; Pandian and Varadaraj, 1990)
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	100% F 95.5% F 100% F 64.7% F	XY + A	(Shah, 1988) (Mair et al., 1991b) (Penman et al., 1987) (Müller-Belecke and Hörstgen-Schwark, 1995)
<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	66.7% F		(Hussain et al., 1998)
<i>Pagrus major</i>	100% F	XY	(Naruse et al., 1985)
<i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i>	F	XY	(Sugama et al., 1989)
	97.1–100% F	primarily XY + A	(Tabata, 1991)
			(Kim et al., 1993)
	93–100% ^c		(Liu et al., 1999; Yamamoto, 1999)
<i>Phoxinus eos-neogaeus</i> hybrid	100% F from clonal eggs	clonal	(Goddard et al., 1998)
<i>Poecilia formosa</i>	F	clonal	(Monaco et al., 1984)
	100% F		(Schartl et al., 1995)
<i>Poeciliopsis 2monacha-lucida 3n</i>	100% F	clonal	(Schultz, 1969)
<i>Poeciliopsis monacha-2lucida 3n</i>	100% F	clonal	(Schultz, 1967)
<i>Poeciliopsis monacha-lucida 2n</i> hybrid (hybridogenesis)	100% F	clonal	(Schultz, 1967, 1973)
<i>Polyodon spathula</i>	100% F	XY	(Mims et al., 1997)
<i>Puntius gonionotus</i>	100% F	XY	(Pongthana et al., 1995, 1999)
<i>Rhodeus ocellatus</i>	7 M:1 F	ZW + A	(Kawamura, 1998)
<i>Salmo salar</i>	100% F	XY	(Quillet and Gaignon, 1990)
<i>Silurus glanis</i>	100% F	XY	(Nagy et al., 1978; Bieniarz et al., 1997)
<i>Solea solea</i>	40% F	ZW + A	(Howell et al., 1995)
<i>Takifugu rubripes</i>	93% F	XY + A	(Kakimoto et al., 1994b)
<i>Tinca tinca</i>	100% F	XY	(Linhart et al., 1989)

^a 'A' indicates either an influence from autosomal genetic factors or environmental influences.

^b Results differ from karyotypic information in Appendix B.

^c Sex ratios determined with environmental sex inversion of genetic females stabilized with estradiol treatments insufficient to feminize genetic males.

occurs between the centromere and the sex-determination locus, or that autosomal influences may also play a role in sex determination in some cases (Patino et al., 1996).

5.7.2. Natural gynogenesis

Natural gynogenesis arising from the retention of the second polar body has been detected by the presence of unusual triploids in wild fish populations (Thorgaard and Gall, 1979; Chermas et al., 1991) and in otherwise lethal hybrid crosses (Seeb et al., 1988). However, several fish species also use gynogenesis as their normal mode of reproduction.

Poecilia formosa is a gynogenetic species (Hubbs and Hubbs, 1932; Schultz, 1971) that forms in nature by hybridization between *P. mexicanana* and *P. latipinna* (Monaco et al., 1984). The progeny of *P. formosa* are all females, arising from the production of unisexual diploid ova by apomictic suppression of the first recombination and the first meiotic division (Rasch et al., 1982). Fertilization of *P. formosa* eggs occurs via sperm from related *Poecilia* species (with which *P. formosa* must live sympatrically), but sperm merely activate the eggs and do not contribute genetic information to the zygote. It is possible that such sperm are incompatible with the cytoplasmic environment in the *P. formosa* egg, resulting in paternal chromosome loss as has been described in hybrids of other species (e.g. Ye et al., 1989). Thus, offspring of *P. formosa* are genetically identical to their mothers, including sex-determining loci, and thus the species is propagated in a clonal, all-female fashion.

In the parental species of *P. formosa*, ZW chromosomes have been identified in *P. latipinna* but not *P. mexicanana* (Sola et al., 1990) (Table 1). A female-determining W chromosome is not observed in *P. formosa* (Sola et al., 1992a,b), suggesting that the direction of hybridization involved *P. mexicanana* females, a result consistent with mtDNA analyses (Avise et al., 1991). Hormonally masculinized *P. formosa* possess male characteristics in their somatic tissues, but such fish are functionally sterile (Haskins et al., 1960; Hamaguchi and Egami, 1980). These findings suggest that the female-determining factors in *P. formosa* may be quite strong, and are able to override external influences. Similarly, male sterility ensures that female determination is maintained despite occasional inclusion of paternal DNA in triploids or hybrids, or as subgenomic fragments (Haskins et al., 1960; Schultz, 1971; Scharlt et al., 1995; Schlupp et al., 1998).

Certain populations of *Carassius auratus* can also reproduce by gynogenesis (Cherfas, 1966; Cherfas et al., 1994; Dong et al., 1996). For *C. auratus gibelio*, both diploid bisexual and triploid all-female forms have been identified (Zhou et al., 1983; Klinkhardt and Buuk, 1990b; Boron, 1994). Triploid ova are reported to arise by the formation of a tripolar spindle and abortion of meiosis I, followed by a single nonreductional meiotic division (Cherfas, 1966). Egg activation occurs by fertilization with sympatric Cyprinid species, but the rare appearance of *C. auratus gibelio* males in gynogenetic populations implies occasional inclusion of paternal genes (Ding et al., 1992; Rokicki and Kulikowski, 1994). In a strain of *C. auratus gibelio* that is unisexual, hormonal masculinization resulted in males with motile but sterile (aneuploid) sperm (Gomel'skii and Cherfas, 1982), as expected from normal meiosis in triploid testis. Allotetraploids (formed between hybrids of *C. auratus* and *C. auratus gibelio* or *C. carpio*) also can reproduce gynogenetically (Yang et al., 1994), and again, problems with sperm decondensation have been observed. Interestingly, in some populations of gynogenetic *C. auratus*, both male and female progeny can be found, and both have the same chromosome number within strains ($2n=156$, Shen et al., 1983; $2n=166$, Chen et al., 1996), albeit different from that found in other triploid carp gynogenetic fish ($2n=150$, Zhou et al., 1983). For gynogenetic triploid *C. auratus langsdorfi*, formation of triploid ova occurs by suppression of one meiotic division, but recombination still occurs in females, indicating that these gynogenetic fish can reassort sex-determining factors and produce rare male individuals by gynogenetic means (Kobayashi, 1976; Zhang et al., 1992). These examples have revealed how aberrations in chromosome transmission in *C. auratus* can function to create sex-

determination mechanisms that limits the appearance of functional males in populations, although dependence on males from related species for egg activation still remains.

In another Cyprinid species pair, *Phoxinus eos* and *Phoxinus neogaeus*, diploid hybrids are all female and reproduce clonally by gynogenesis (Goddard and Dawley, 1990). Triploid and mosaic forms also exist that contain cells with one or two sets of chromosomes from each parental type, indicating that hybrids produce unreduced diploid ova that can be fertilized with sperm from either parental species. Detailed analysis of meiotic products from *P. eos-neogaeus* diploids reveals that identical and nonidentical diploid ova, as well as haploid ova with only the *P. eos* genome, can be produced (Goddard et al., 1998). Further, in combination with haploid parental sperm, such ova can form all-female gynogenetic females or bisexual diploid groups. In the genus *Cobitis*, diploid, triploid, and tetraploid hybrid forms have been identified (Vasil'eva et al., 1989; Vasil'ev et al., 1990; Vasil'yev et al., 1991), and the triploid form is all female and reproduces gynogenetically by producing unreduced triploid ova. Tetraploids are formed from fertilization of triploid ova with sperm from either *C. granoei* or *C. taenia* males, the former resulting in a gynogenetic all-female form and the latter in a bisexual form.

The previous examples indicate that depending on the balance of sex factors, chromosome compatibilities, and ploidy level, hybrid groups can result that are either only female (in which case reproduction occurs by gynogenesis), or are bisexual with normal gametogenesis. Other examples where hybridization and/or gynogenesis may be operating to produce monosexual populations are in *Menidia clarkhubbsi* (Echelle and Mosier, 1982; Echelle et al., 1988), in *Fundulus heteroclitus* by *F. diaphanus* hybrids (Dawley and Yeakel, 1991), and in the *Rutilus alburnoides* complex (Collares-Pereira, 1985). In the latter hybrids, diploid females transmit both hybrid genomes to diploid eggs, which, when fertilized by a parental species, result in the formation of triploid progeny (Alves et al., 1998). However, such triploids produce predominantly haploid eggs by eliminating the unmatched genome and allowing the homotypic genomes to segregate normally during meiosis to produce haploid eggs. This unique system thus allows exchange of genes between diploids and triploids in the populations, and may explain why this species complex has been so successful. In other cases [e.g. hybrids of *Lepomis gibbosus* and *L. cyanellus* (Dawley et al., 1985), or hybrids between *O. latipes* and *O. curvinotus* (Sakaizumi et al., 1991)], hybrids may form unreduced eggs that result in triploid animals, but these are sterile and thus cannot perpetuate the hybrid condition.

Reproduction by natural gynogenesis provides interesting examples of how meiotic mechanisms can control segregation of sex-determining genes to yield monosexual species. Information regarding the nature of sex-determining factors that operate in these conditions can be difficult to discern since modes of gene segregation cannot be analyzed by standard methods. For all-female species to maintain their sexual determinants, reductional divisions and genetic exchange need to be suppressed, and cytoplasmic incompatibility for sperm must be established to ensure that male sex-determining factors do not enter the clonally propagated genomes (see Section 5.7.3). It is of some interest that no male-only species have been described in fish. Such individuals would need to develop genetic systems that ensure the determination of male sex (i.e. XY or XO conditions) as well as a mechanism to prevent X-chromosome transmission through spermatogenesis. The cost of this strategy to egg-producing individuals in sympatric host species may create

enormous impacts on fitness that select against the development and maintenance of such mechanisms in fish.

5.7.3. Hybridogenesis

In the genus *Poeciliopsis*, natural and artificial hybrid progeny derived from certain species are all females, and these hybrids in turn give rise to unisexual progeny as well (Schultz, 1967, 1973). The most intensely studied form of these hybrids is *P. monacha-lucida*, formed by the hybridization of *P. monacha* females with *P. lucida* males (Schultz, 1973; Quattro et al., 1991). Such hybrids clonally reproduce (Quattro et al., 1992b), but unlike gynogenetic fish, they display biochemical and phenotypic characteristics of both parental species (Schultz, 1969; Quattro et al., 1992a). Reproduction is accomplished by mating with males from the bisexual parental *P. lucida* (or other closely related *Poeciliopsis* species) (Schultz, 1971).

P. monacha-lucida produces ova that are entirely devoid of the original paternal set of chromosomes. During meiosis, a unipolar spindle attaches only to *P. monacha* chromosomes, and *P. lucida* chromosomes are lost and do not contribute to the formation of gametes (Cimino, 1972a). The *P. monacha* haploid ova thus formed are fertilized by *P. lucida* sperm, the chromosomes of which are incorporated into, and expressed within, the developing embryo, reestablishing the *P. monacha-lucida* hybrid unisexual. This process of hybridization and paternal chromosome exclusion has been termed hybridogenesis (Schultz, 1969).

Triploid unisexual forms of *Poeciliopsis* are also known, termed *P. monacha-2lucida* and *P. 2monacha-lucida*, and both reproduce by gynogenesis rather than hybridogenesis. These two forms are believed to originate from the *P. monacha-lucida* hybrid through the rare retention of the paternal genome and production of diploid ova, which are subsequently fertilized with sperm either from *P. monacha* or *P. lucida* (Schultz, 1969; Quattro et al., 1992a). Meiosis occurs differently in the triploid unisexuals than in the diploid hybrid, such that an endoreduplication event occurs in triploids, which results in a hexaploid nucleus that undergoes MI and MII divisions without genetic exchange to produce triploid ova (Cimino, 1972b). Thus, in these gynogenetic triploids, all three parental maternal genomes are retained in the gametes, and fertilizing sperm from *P. lucida* only activate eggs (Schultz, 1967) and do not contribute genetically to offspring.

Other influences regulating sex determination must also be operating to allow formation and maintenance of unisexual hybrids. That diploid *P. monacha-lucida* hybrids are unisexual suggests that female sex-determination genes of *P. monacha* are stronger than male influences carried by the *P. lucida* genome. Indeed, triploid *P. monacha-2lucida* are also female, despite arising from the addition of another *P. lucida* paternal genome. Interestingly, some artificial crosses involving *P. monacha-lucida* have yielded unanticipated sex ratios. For example, in crosses between triploid *P. monacha-2lucida* and males of another poeciliid, *P. latidens*, all-female progeny arise that are identical to the female parent (consistent with its gynogenetic mode of reproduction in triploids). However, in crosses of *P. latidens* males with two different diploid, *P. monacha-lucida* strains (originally termed Cz and Cx; see Schultz, 1969), all-male progeny arise from the Cz strain, whereas Cx produces both males and females. Since both strains produce all-female progeny by hybridogenesis in crosses with *P. lucida*, it appears that the *P. latidens* genome

has a stronger male-determining ability than *P. lucida* when in combination with a *P. monacha* genome. Further, different haploid ova that vary in their sex determination character must be produced from the two diploid hybridogenetic forms.

Poeciliid species represent an extreme in sex-determination mechanisms that utilizes modifications in meiotic processes to ensure transmission of entire female-determining genomes directly from mother to daughter. Although they are very successful (Thibault, 1978), having been clonally propagated in nature for as many as 100,000 generations (Quattro et al., 1992b), these hybridogenetic species remain dependent upon sperm derived from males in sympatric parental species, which creates interesting bispecies sexual selection pressures (Schultz, 1971; Monaco et al., 1984; Vrijenhoek, 1993).

5.7.4. Androgenesis

Androgenesis is the process by which all nuclear genetic material is derived from the father (Parsons and Thorgaard, 1985; Scheerer et al., 1986; May and Grewe, 1993; Corley Smith et al., 1996). Although this condition can arise naturally in fish (Yamazaki, 1983a; Ye et al., 1989; Blanc et al., 1993), it has also been successfully achieved artificially by fertilizing eggs that have been treated with ionizing or ultraviolet radiation to destroy maternal nuclear DNA [e.g. in trout (Thorgaard, 1992), sturgeon (Grunina and Nejfhah, 1991; Grunina et al., 1995), common carp (Bongers et al., 1994), Japanese koi carps (Rothbard et al., 1999), and tilapias *O. niloticus* and *O. aureus* (Myers et al., 1995; Marengoni and Onoue, 1998)]. Although such zygotes are initially haploid and normally die during embryonic or early larval life, diploidy can be restored by treating the fertilized eggs with a temperature or pressure shock around the time of the first mitotic division. This process effectively doubles the haploid chromosome set, and because individuals are entirely homozygous (Young et al., 1996), the viability of induced androgenotes is usually quite low. Androgenotes have also been produced by fertilizing irradiated eggs with diploid sperm produced either from tetraploid fish (Thorgaard et al., 1990; Blanc et al., 1993) or by chemical fusion prior to fertilization (Araki et al., 1995).

In XY systems such as salmonids or carps, either X- or Y-bearing sperm can fertilize irradiated eggs to yield XX female and YY male androgenotes after shock treatment (Parsons and Thorgaard, 1985; Scheerer et al., 1986; Bongers et al., 1999). The former are regular females, but the males with two Y chromosomes will yield monosex progeny in crosses to regular females, and thus are useful for producing all-male populations of fish. In rainbow trout, evidence has been presented that XX androgenotes can also develop as males (Scheerer et al., 1991), perhaps because of incomplete elimination of maternal DNA that results in aneuploid conditions that disrupts normal sex determination (see Section 5.7.6).

In zebrafish, methods for inducing androgenesis have been developed, and at least one functional male has been obtained (Corley Smith et al., 1996). As indicated by these authors, further experiments (examining sex ratios and progeny testing) will be revealed to determine whether data from androgenesis correlates with that from gynogenesis, the latter case producing either both sexes (Streisinger et al., 1981) or only males (Hoerstgen Schwark, 1993). Together, the findings from gynogenesis and androgenesis suggest that different strains of zebrafish may have distinct balances of sex determination factors that

function in a polyfactorial fashion (but also see Appendix B for evidence that this species possesses sex chromosomes).

An interesting application of androgenesis has provided information relating to the sex-determination locus in a genetic map for rainbow trout (Young et al., 1998). Clonal XX and YY androgenetic lines were used to generate heterozygous XY F₁ males, which were in turn used for the generation of F₂ diploid androgenetic fish. Because second generation androgenotes contained only individual meiotic products from the F₁ male, analysis of their genotypes with variable DNA markers allowed the rapid generation of a genetic linkage map. While this approach is conceptually similar to gene mapping using gynogenetic haploids (Lie et al., 1994; Postlethwait et al., 1994), it also allows mapping of sex determination loci in XY systems, which has revealed a distal location in the case of rainbow trout (Young et al., 1998).

5.7.5. Polyploidy

Early theories on sex differentiation were influenced by genetic studies with *Drosophila*, where the decision to develop as male or female is determined by the balance between sex-chromosomal and autosomal factors, rather than by the number or type of sex chromosomes present (Bridges, 1925; Bull, 1983). In such cases, diploid individuals with an X chromosome to autosome ratio (X:A) greater than 1.0 develop as phenotypic females (i.e. 2X:2A females and 3X:2A superfemales), whereas individuals with an X:A ratio of 0.5 or less (1X:2A males, with or without the presence of a Y chromosome) develop as males. In this system, changes in autosomal ploidy are also able to influence sex differentiation by altering the X:A ratio. Thus in triploids, 3X:3A animals (X:A = 1.0) are female and 1X:3A individuals (X:A = 0.33) are male, but 2X:3A individuals with an intermediate balance of X chromosomal and autosomal factors (X:A = 0.67) contain mixtures of cells developing as male or female. In systems where sex is determined by genetically dominant activity of genes located on sex chromosomes, ploidy is anticipated to have less of an effect on sex differentiation. However, even dominant systems of control may be affected by dosage effects to some degree since genes involved in mammalian sex determination can act in a dosage-sensitive manner to influence sexual phenotype (Capel, 1998).

Ploidy changes can be manipulated in fish (Donaldson and Hunter, 1982; Thorgaard, 1983a; Donaldson and Devlin, 1996; Benfey, 1999), and in many species, gonadal sex differentiation is disrupted. For example, in salmonids and tilapia, triploid females have poorly developed gonads with very few developing oocytes, whereas spermatogenesis occurs in triploid males, but sterility occurs due to random segregation of trivalents, which produces aneuploid sperm (e.g. Benfey et al., 1986; Hussain et al., 1996; Puckhaber and Horstgen-Schwak, 1996). In triploid females, aneuploid oocytes seem to be impaired from significant development (Nakamura et al., 1987), but since no chromosomes leave the egg until well into oogenesis, the exact mechanism by which gametogenesis is impaired in triploid females remains obscure. The genetic sex of the gonad (presence or absence of the Y chromosome) does not appear to influence sterility, since XXY ovaries and XXX testis show similar characteristics as their diploid counterparts (Krisfalusi and Cloud, 1999). Not all triploid fish are sterile, however (see Section 5.7.3). In carps, both males and females of *C. auratus gibelio* are fertile (Shen et al., 1983), whereas females are fertile and males are sterile in triploid hybrids of *C. carpio* (Wu et al., 1993) (see Section 5.7.2). Natural

examples of fertile triploids have also been reported for *Noemacheilus barbatulus* (Collares-Pereira et al., 1995), and *R. alburnoides* (Collares-Pereira, 1985).

In species where sex is determined by a strong XY system, XXX and XXY triploid individuals are female and male, respectively (Thorgaard and Gall, 1979; Chourrout and Quillet, 1982). In ZW systems, the genetic sex of triploids formed by polar-body retention is difficult to interpret due to the possibility of recombination between the sex-determination locus and the centromere, which could skew sex ratios between 50% and 100% females (see above). In polygenic systems, ploidy changes are anticipated to influence sex ratios due to the differential contribution of genomes from males and females (and their associated concentrations of male- and female-determining factors). In tilapia, sex ratios in triploids of a species with an XY system (*O. niloticus*) were similar to that seen in diploid controls (Penman et al., 1987; Mair et al., 1991b; Puckhaber and Horstgen-Schwak, 1996), whereas a preponderance of males was observed in the ZW species, *O. aureus* (Penman et al., 1987; Mair et al., 1991a). Interestingly, triploid *D. rerio* are all males (Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1990), possibly arising from changes in cell size, which alter regulatory factor concentrations sufficient to shift development towards the male mode. For European sea bass *D. labrax* L., sex ratios were unaffected by the triploid condition (Felip et al., 1999). Interestingly, for the rosy bitterling *Rhodeus ocellatus* (which possesses a ZW system), a single W chromosome in a triploid does not induce female development (Kawamura, 1998) implying that the W chromosome is not fully dominant in the presence of three chromosome sets, or that the sex determination in this species may be operating by measuring the dosage of Z chromosomes (see above).

Higher levels of ploidy have also been observed in fish. Tetraploids have an even number of homologues per chromosome and thus can be fertile, producing diploid gametes. Fertile tetraploid males (XXYY) and females (XXXX) have been produced in rainbow trout by suppressing the first mitotic division after fertilization (Chourrout and Nakayama, 1987; Thorgaard et al., 1990; Blanc et al., 1993). In loach *Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*, triploid, tetraploid, and hexaploid animals have been produced (Arai et al., 1993; Zhang and Arai, 1996; Arai and Mukaino, 1997), and interestingly, male and female progeny are obtained in equal numbers (Arai et al., 1999). Tetraploid hybrid progeny derived from *C. carpio* and *Ctenopharyngodon idellus* can be both functional males and females (Wu et al., 1988), and bisexual diploid and tetraploid *Corydorus aeneus* have been identified in nature (Turner et al., 1992). It is likely that wild tetraploid populations are difficult to establish since their diploid gametes will form sterile triploid individuals in combination with regular haploid gametes from diploids. Thus, tetraploid strains or species may form most readily in small populations where multiple individuals derived from the same aberrant premeiotic event can have a significant probability of interbreeding.

Notwithstanding the difficulties in establishing wild tetraploid populations, polyploidy has naturally occurred several times during the evolution of fish and other vertebrates (Ohno, 1970a,b; Allendorf and Thorgaard, 1984), implying that sex-determination mechanisms must be robust to these changes, at least on an evolutionary scale. In XY systems, initial formation of gametes from heterogametic F₁ tetraploids (XXYY) would be biased towards the production of that sex arising from segregation of paired XX and paired YY chromosomes to produce primarily XY diploid gametes. This has been observed in rainbow trout, where the sex ratio in second generation tetraploids is indeed male biased

(94.5%) (Chourrout et al., 1986). In subsequent generations, tetraploid males would be XXXY, and, assuming divalent pairing of chromosomes occurred during meiosis, would produce essentially 1:1 sex ratios. Any pairing tendency that affected regular segregation of X and Y chromosomes (e.g. trivalent X chromosome segregation, with the Y moving at random) would be met with strong selective pressure to cause homologous chromosomes to rapidly diverge to yield only a single pair of chromosomes involved in sex determination. This process has occurred in salmonids (which are clearly of historical tetraploid ancestry; Allendorf and Thorgaard, 1984), such that some 30 million years after the polyploid event (Devlin, 1993; McKay et al., 1996), only single X and Y chromosomes are apparent in males.

The very large number of studies examining ploidy changes in fish contain little evidence that ploidy-mediated intersexuality occurs. In fish, sex differentiation is controlled by endocrine mechanisms with feedback control systems that regulate signals on organismal as well as cellular levels, which in gonochoristic species, leads either to a male or female differentiated state. Hermaphroditic fish species more resemble the *Drosophila* system of cell-autonomous sex determination, having evolved controls that allow differentiation of both testis and ovary in the same animal while exposed to the same endocrine signals. It would be of interest to examine the effects of ploidy change in hermaphroditic species.

5.7.6. Aneuploidy

Evidence exists that aneuploidy occurs naturally in fish (Chernenko, 1976; Severin, 1979; Zelinskiy, 1985), in hybrids and their progeny (Arefjev, 1989; Ye et al., 1989), and from crosses involving triploid animals with aberrant meiosis (Benfey et al., 1986; Hussain et al., 1996; Benfey, 1999). In such cases, it is anticipated that altered balances of sex determination loci, disrupted development profiles, and altered gene expression in aneuploids (e.g. Devlin et al., 1988) could influence the interpretation of sex determination signals. However, studies clearly identifying aneuploid effects on sex differentiation are lacking in fish. Scheerer et al. (1991) have noted that XX androgenotes of rainbow trout produced from irradiated eggs can develop as males, an effect which could be caused by developmental instability resulting from retention of chromosome fragments derived from the female parent. Similarly, during gynogenesis, irradiation of sperm can induce chromosome fragmentation, which could lead to the production of chromosome fragments affecting sex determination (Disney et al., 1987). In this regard, males have been observed among gynogenetic offspring of *M. anguillicaudatus*, a species where sex is normally determined by an XY system (Nomura et al., 1998), but in this case, temperature effects on sex determination may also be acting (see below).

6. Environmental effects on sex determination

6.1. Exogenous steroids

A very large literature on the manipulation of sex differentiation in fish with exogenous steroids has been comprehensively reviewed (Yamamoto, 1969; Hunter and Donaldson, 1983; Yamazaki, 1983b; Pandian and Sheela, 1995; Nakamura et al., 1998; Piferrer, 2001).

The vast majority of this research has been undertaken to control the reproduction of cultured species, although a few studies have also explored the mechanisms of exogenous steroid action. Experiments have involved different androgens, estrogens, or precursor steroids administered by immersion or in the diet at various stages of development. Different dosages and durations of treatment have also been employed to allow elucidation of the critical periods of sensitivity for sex determination. More than 50 species of fish have been investigated in steroid-mediated sex-reversal studies (Table 4). Summarizing the details of these studies in all species is beyond the scope and goals of the present review, and only an overview of recent information is provided as it relates to the stability of sex determination observed among fish species.

Without knowledge of specific mechanisms, it is difficult to know whether control of steroid biosynthesis occurs early or late in the sex-determination pathway. Although steroid biosynthesis may not represent the initial sex-determination event, it is clear that steroids play a critical role in early differentiation of the gonad into the two sexual types, and probably also for the subsequent maintenance of these conditions. Because steroid synthesis and reception are uncoupled (see Section 4), a point is provided in the sex-differentiation pathway of vertebrates where application of exogenous steroids may influence the course of gonad development. Both estrogen and androgen receptors have been identified in early fish gonads (Fitzpatrick et al., 1994; Chang et al., 1999b), providing a mechanism for the action of exogenous steroids on gonadal differentiation. If sufficient levels of sex steroids are provided to fish, and particularly at stages of development when endogenous pathways have not been fully established, altered sex differentiation may occur (Table 4).

Androgen treatment of fish has in most cases been very effective in inducing masculinization of fish (Hunter and Donaldson, 1983). The modes of administration of these steroids has been by inclusion in the diet or by direct immersion, and less commonly by injection or inclusion in slow-release formulations or silastic implants (Pandian and Sheela, 1995). The most common androgen employed in sex-reversal studies has been 17α , methyltestosterone (MT), being effective in over 25 species examined (Table 4). Similarly, treatment of fish with estrogens (primarily estradiol- 17β , ethynylestradiol, and diethylstilbestrol) has in most cases resulted in the feminization of genetic males. Effective oral and immersion dosages of these hormones are approximately 5–500 mg/kg feed and 50–1000 $\mu\text{g/l}$, respectively, but required values range widely between species, compounds, and treatment regimes. For example, 100% masculinization can be achieved in chinook salmon with only a single immersion in MT at 400 $\mu\text{g/l}$ administered at the time of hatching (Piferrer et al., 1993); treatment of *O. niloticus* required immersion in 5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ for 75 h followed by dietary treatment at 50 mg/kg for 40 days after first feeding (Lone and Ridha, 1993), whereas complete masculinization of common carp can be accomplished with 100 mg/kg MT in the diet between 40 and 70 days postfertilization (Duda and Linhart, 1992). The potency of different androgens also varies widely, such that the minimum doses causing complete masculinization of *B. splendens* were 8, 15, 60, 90 mg/kg diet for 19-nor-ethynyltestosterone, 17α , methyltestosterone, 11-ketotestosterone, and androstenedione, respectively (Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1994a). It is presumed that different potencies arise from different affinities for steroid receptors, activities of steroid–receptor complexes, and steroid metabolism.

The timing and duration of treatment is of critical importance for inducing sex inversion in fishes (Piferrer, 2001). In general, the most sensitive period is at a time just prior to, or concomitant with, the initial histological differentiation of the primitive gonad (Hunter and Donaldson, 1983) (see Section 3). Because of vast differences in developmental rates among fishes, the labile stage occurs at different chronological times in different species. For example, in the egg-laying salmonids, this time of sex determination occurs during larval hatching from the egg but can occur much later in other species (e.g. Piferrer and Donaldson, 1989; Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1993b; Blázquez et al., 2001; Piferrer, 2001). Treatments of fish with undifferentiated gonads for as brief a period as 2 h can result in a reversal of sexual differentiation (Piferrer and Donaldson, 1991). In viviparous species, sex determination occurs prior to parturition, thus requiring treatment of the parental female to induce sex change in the offspring (e.g. Takahashi, 1975; Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1993a).

Incomplete sex transformations are regularly observed with steroid treatments in fish, such that development of both testicular and ovarian tissue occurs in the same individual (Table 4). In some cases, the intersex conditions results in the production of functional gametes from hermaphrodites (Jalabert et al., 1975; Chevassus et al., 1988; Liu and Yao, 1995) allowing self fertilization (also achievable with protandrous species using cryopreservation; Happe and Zohar, 1988). However, in gonochorists, it is difficult to know whether intersexuality arises from insufficient treatment (dosage, duration, or timing), or because the particular species is unable to fully respond to exogenous hormone treatment. Among gynogenetic clones of common carp (which are normally all female), the efficacy of masculinization with 17α -methyltestosterone varied among families and was always incomplete under a variety of treatment conditions, suggesting that a significant genetic influence on ability to respond to exogenous androgen exists in this species (Komen et al., 1993). Similarly, rearing temperature has been shown to influence the efficacy of masculinization of gynogenetic carp (Nagy et al., 1981).

Very brief treatments with hormones during early stages of the sex determination period can result in permanent alterations in sexual phenotype, suggesting that a developmental period does exist when permanent switching of the sex determination pathway can occur. However, for some species, the sex ratio of hormone-treated groups has been followed through development, revealing that the sex inversion effect can be transitory (see Section 3.4). For example, groups of rainbow trout fed diets with 17α methyltestosterone (Olito and Brock, 1991) showed complete masculinization soon after treatment, but sex ratios reverted back towards 1:1 when examined 6 months later. Since, for trout, it is known that the labile period for sex differentiation begins much earlier than first-feeding stage, it is possible that individuals had their gonadal pathways partially fixed by the time treatment was initiated by dietary means, and androgen treatment would serve only to temporarily alter the sexual state of gonadal cell differentiation. In studies such as these, care must be exercised to ensure that masculinization has actually occurred initially, rather than simply an impairment or delay of ovarian development, which may produce an undifferentiated or sterile gonad that resembles and immature testis.

Excessive treatments (with androgens or estrogens; Goetz et al., 1979; Sehgal and Saxena, 1997b) can lead to disruptions in gonadal development or sterility (Table 4). These effects may reflect incompatibilities between the exogenous steroids and internal genetic and physiological processes, or pathological effects on gonad development. In this

Table 4
Effects of steroids on gonadal differentiation

Species	T	11KT	MT	DMT	DHT	ET	AND	19N	TRB	MIB	PRO	FM	MTL	E2	EST	AME	17EE	DES	References
<i>Acanthopagrus schlegeli</i>														F					(Chang et al., 1995b)
<i>Acipenser ruthenis</i>														F					(Akhundov and Fedorov, 1994)
<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>			NE											F			F		(Colombo and Grandi, 1989)
														F					(Degani and Kushnirov, 1992)
			NE														F		(Colombo and Grandi, 1995)
<i>Anguilla japonica</i>														FH					(Andersen et al., 1996)
<i>Betta splendens</i>			M											F					(Chiba et al., 1993)
	M																		(Jessy and Varghese, 1987)
														F			FH	F	(Badura and Friedman, 1988)
		MH	MH					MH	MH										(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1993b)
<i>Carassius auratus</i>			M													F			(Kavumpurath and Pandian, 1994a)
																			(Yamamoto and Kajishima, 1969)
<i>Carassius auratus gibelio</i> (gynogenetic)		M																	(Kobayashi et al., 1991)
<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i>			S																(Lou et al., 1994)
<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i>			MSH																(Boney et al., 1984)
<i>Cyclopterus lumpus</i>			M																(Shelton, 1986)
														F					(Martin-Robichaud et al., 1994)

<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	MH							(Nagy et al., 1981)
	MS					FS		(Rao and Rao, 1983)
		M				F		(Nagaraj and Rao, 1987)
	S							(Manzoor Ali and Satyanarayana Rao, 1989)
					S			(Das et al., 1990)
					M			(Das et al., 1991)
	MH							(Komen et al., 1993)
	MS							(Gomelsky et al., 1994)
					M			(Sobhnana and Nandeesh, 1994)
	MS							(Sehgal and Saxena, 1995a)
			S					(Sehgal and Saxena, 1995b)
						S F	F S	(Basavaraja et al., 1997)
							S F	(Sehgal and Saxena, 1997a)
								(Sehgal and Saxena, 1997b)
<i>Danio rerio</i>	M							(Yamazaki, 1976)
<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	MH					HS	FHS	(Blázquez et al., 1995)
								(Blázquez et al., 1998a)
<i>Epinephelus suillus</i>	M							(Kuo et al., 1987)
	M							(Tan-Fermin et al., 1994)
<i>Esox masquinongy</i>	H							(Dabrowski et al., 2000)
<i>Esox lucius</i>				M, H				(Demska-Zakes et al., 2000)
<i>Gambusia sp.</i>	M					F		(Yamamoto, 1969)
<i>Hypophthalmichthys molitrix</i>	MHS							(Mirza and Shelton, 1988)
<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i>					F	F		(Goudie et al., 1983)
			F					(Davis et al., 1992)
				M, NE				(Galvez et al., 1995; Davis et al., 2000)
<i>Limanada yokohamae</i>	M							(Kakimoto et al., 1994a)
<i>Micropterus salmoides</i>	MH					F	F	(Garrett, 1989)
	M							(Porter, 1996)

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Table 4 (continued)

Species	T	11KT	MT	DMT	DHT	ET	AND	19N	TRB	MIB	PRO	FM	MTL	E2	EST	AME	17EE	DES	References
<i>Misgurnus anguillicaudatus</i>															F				(Kubota and Hatakeyama, 1987)
															F				(Kubota et al., 1988)
<i>Mizgurnus mizolepus</i>														FH					(Kim et al., 1997a)
<i>Morone saxatilis</i>			M																(Gomelsky et al., 1999)
<i>Mugil cephalus</i>														F					(Chang et al., 1995c)
<i>Oncorhynchus keta</i>														F					(Nakamura, 1984)
<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>			S H											F H					(Goetz et al., 1979)
			S											F					(Hunter et al., 1982)
			MF			M													(Piferrer and Donaldson, 1991)
														F					(Son, 1991)
														F					(Foyle, 1993)
			SH			S								F					(Piferrer and Donaldson, 1994)
																			(Piferrer et al., 1994b)
<i>Oncorhynchus masou</i>														FH					(Nakamura, 1984)
			M																(Park et al., 1993)
			M																(Nakamura, 1994)
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	M																		(Yamamoto, 1969)
															F				(Okada, 1973)
			MSH												HS				(Jalabert et al., 1975)
			S																(Yamazaki, 1976)
			MH											FH					(Johnstone et al., 1978)
			M											F					(Johnstone et al., 1979b)
			M																(Okada et al., 1979)
			M																(Bye and Lincoln, 1981)
			MSH							FH									(Van Den Hurk and Slof, 1981)
			MFS																(Solar and Donaldson, 1985)

				MI								(Cousin-Gerber et al., 1989)
												(Goryczko et al., 1991)
												(Olito and Brock, 1991)
												(Schmelzing and Gall, 1991)
												(Feist et al., 1995)
												(Nakamura, 1994)
<i>Oncorhynchus rhodurus</i>												
<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>												
												(Hunter et al., 1983)
												(Baker et al., 1988)
												(Piferrer and Donaldson, 1992)
												(Piferrer et al., 1993)
												(Solar et al., 1994)
<i>Oreochromis aureus</i>												(Guerrero, 1975)
												(Anderson et al., 1978)
												(Hopkins et al., 1979)
												(Shelton et al., 1981)
												(Meriwether and Torrans, 1986)
												(Mair et al., 1987)
												(Torrans et al., 1988)
												(Desprez et al., 1995)
												(Galvez et al., 1996)
												(Obi, 1989)
<i>Oreochromis eurolepus hornorum</i>												
<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>												
												(Nakamura and Takahashi, 1973)
												(Nakamura, 1975)
												(Guerrero, 1979)
												(Nakamura, 1981)
												(Das et al., 1987)

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<i>Oreochromis</i>		M									(Ridha and Lone, 1990)
<i>spilurus</i>		M									(Lone and Ridha, 1993)
<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	M	M		M	M	M		M	F	F	(Ridha and Lone, 1995)
		M							F	F	(Yamamoto, 1969)
<i>Paralichthys</i>									F	S	(Fineman et al., 1975)
<i>olivaceus</i>		MF							F		(Tanaka, 1988)
<i>Perca flavescens</i>		MH							F		(Bang et al., 1995;
<i>Poecilia formosa</i>		S									Kitano et al., 2000)
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>		M									(Malison et al., 1986)
	M										(Hamaguchi and
											Egami, 1980)
											(Clemens et al., 1966)
									F		(Yamamoto, 1969)
									FH		(Takahashi, 1975)
										FH	(Kavumpurath and
			M		MH	MH					Pandian, 1992a)
											(Kavumpurath and
<i>Poecilia sphenops</i>									FH		Pandian, 1993a)
										FH	(George and
											Pandian, 1995)
											(George and
<i>Pomoxis</i>		MH									Pandian, 1998)
<i>nigromaculatus</i>											(Al-ablani and
<i>Pseudocrenilabrus</i>									FH		Phelps, 1997)
<i>multicolor</i>											(Hackman and
<i>Puntius gonionotus</i>		MS									Reinboth, 1974)
<i>Salmo salar</i>		MS							F		(Pongthana et al., 1999)
		M									(Johnstone et al., 1978)
											(Johnstone and
											Youngson, 1984)
									FH		(Sower et al., 1984)
	MH								F		(Herman and
											Kincaid, 1991)

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Table 4 (continued)

Species	T	11KT	MT	DMT	DHT	ET	AND	19N	TRB	MIB	PRO	FM	MTL	E2	EST	AME	17EE	DES	References
<i>Salvelinus fontinalis</i>			M											FH					(Johnstone et al., 1979a)
<i>Salvelinus namaycush</i>	MH													NE H					(Herman and Kincaid, 1991)
<i>Sebastes schlegeli</i>														F					(Lee et al., 2000)
<i>Sparus aurata</i>														F					(Condeça and Canario, 1995)
<i>Stizostedion lucioperca</i>			MFHS																(Demska-Zakes and Zakes, 1997)
<i>Tilapia zillii</i>			M																(Woiwode, 1977)
			M			M													(Guerrero, 1979)
<i>Tinca tinca</i>			MHS																(Linhart et al., 1995)
<i>Verasper moseri</i>														F					(Mori et al., 1995)
<i>Xiphophorus helleri</i>			M																(Yamamoto, 1969)
			M											F					(Lim et al., 1992)
			M																(Mauricio Nava-Bautista and Rodriguez-Gutierrez, 1997)

M = masculinization; F = feminization; H = hermaphrodite gonads; S = sterilization; NE = no effect. *, in combination with methallibure or cyproterone acetate. Citation of Yamamoto (1969) refers to historical references contained within that review. T, testosterone; 11KT, 11-ketotestosterone; MT, 17 α -methyltestosterone; DMT, dimethyltestosterone; DHT, 17 α -methyl dihydrotestosterone; ET, ethynyltestosterone forms; AND, androstenedione forms; 19N, 19-norethisterone; TBA, trenbolone acetate; MIB, mibolerone; PRO, progesterone; FM, fluoxymesterone; MTL, metalonone; E2, estradiol-17 β ; EST, estrone; AME, α -methylene-estradiol; 17-EE, 17 α -ethynylestradiol; DES, diethylstilbestrol.

regard, differences in spawning rate noted between regular WZ females and feminized ZZ pseudofemales of *O. aureus* may be due to the expression of the male genotype in the latter (Desprez and Melard, 1998a).

Treatments of fish with excessive androgen can also lead to reduced masculinization, and in some cases induce paradoxical feminization (Nakamura, 1975; Van Den Hurk and Slof, 1981; Goudie et al., 1983; Solar and Donaldson, 1985; Piferrer and Donaldson, 1991; Piferrer et al., 1993; Bang et al., 1995; Demska-Zakes and Zakes, 1997; and references therein). Androgens have been recently shown to interact with the estrogen receptor (Mori et al., 1998), and thus may have direct feminizing effects in some cases. However, androgens are also the immediate precursors to estrogens, and the latter may be elevated if its substrate concentrations are sufficiently high to drive conversion rates through the steroid biosynthesis pathway (via the enzyme aromatase). That androgen aromatization may be responsible for this effect has been tested and confirmed in coho salmon: Paradoxical feminization occurred with aromatizable (17 α -methyltestosterone) but not nonaromatizable (17 α -methyl-dihydrotestosterone) androgens (Piferrer and Donaldson, 1991; Piferrer et al., 1993). Interestingly, in channel catfish, essentially 100% feminization occurs with some androgens (Table 4), but in this case, nonaromatizable androgens still retain a feminizing effect (Goudie et al., 1983; Davis et al., 1990), even in the presence of clomiphene citrate, an estrogen–receptor blocker (Davis et al., 1992). Other androgens (trenbolone) do not have this effect, and curiously were able to masculinize channel catfish (Galvez et al., 1995), indicating that only certain androgens can regulate the initiation of female sexual differentiation in channel catfish by an as yet obscure mechanism.

Despite the incomplete effects on sex inversion observed in some cases, experiments involving steroid treatment have very clearly demonstrated that the gonad is capable of stably reversing normal courses of sexual development in a wide range of fish species. Transient treatments of sufficient strength and appropriate timing are usually required to initiate this altered differentiation, and sustained application of the reversing hormone is not needed to maintain the altered sexual state. Further, in the majority of cases, genetic functions that normally act to determine sex do not subsequently rereverse sex differentiation after hormone treatment is withdrawn, suggesting that sex-determination loci primarily act during early development, or that their action is of insufficient magnitude to override the course of sex differentiation established by exogenous steroid treatment. Estradiol treatments have been shown to enhance gonadal aromatase activity in differentiating gonads of grey mullet *Mugil cephalus* and medaka (*O. latipes*) (Chang et al., 1999a; Scholz and Gutzeit, 2000), whereas, in rainbow trout testis, estradiol did not induce aromatase mRNA but other steroidogenic enzyme mRNAs (e.g. 11 β -hydroxylase) associated with testicular development were repressed (Govoroun et al., 2001). These data imply that exogenous steroids act, in part, by altering the expression of steroidogenic enzyme genes involved in sex differentiation.

6.2. Temperature and other physical variables

In mammals and birds, embryonic development at the time of sex determination occurs under controlled temperature conditions. However, fish are poikilothermic, and embryonic development proceeds in full exposure to the external physical environment where rela-

tively large temperature alterations can occur. While fish have evolved wide tolerances for such temperature effects to allow development of viable embryos, evidence is accumulating that effects on sex determination may occur. Temperature effects on sex have been now observed in at least eight families of jawed fishes, as well as one Agnathan species.

Sex determination is controlled by the actions of a variety of biochemical pathways involving many different proteins (e.g. transcription factors, steroidogenic enzymes, receptors and second messenger systems, etc.). Since it is well known that temperature can dramatically influence the structure and function of proteins and other macromolecules, temperature fluctuations as are encountered by fish in different habitats could alter sex-determination pathways and influence the probability that development would be male or female. Temperature-dependent sex determination has been extensively studied in reptiles, where exposure to elevated temperature results in female development in some species (Bull and Vogt, 1979; Vogt and Bull, 1982). These temperature-dependent effects appear to be mediated in part by influencing aromatase activity and estradiol synthesis in females, and by steroid receptors in both sexes (Crews and Bergeron, 1994; Crews, 1996). Such effects may also occur in fish: Estradiol secretion has been shown to range as much as 20-fold over just a 5 °C temperature range in common carp (Manning and Kime, 1984), and temperature also affects steroid production testis in trout, carp and tilapia (Kime and Hyder, 1983; Manning and Kime, 1985; Kime and Manning, 1986). In Nile tilapia (*O. niloticus*) and Japanese flounder (*P. olivaceus*), elevated temperatures (which cause masculinization) are associated with reduced aromatase mRNA levels and lower estradiol levels (Kitano et al., 1999; D'Cotta et al., 2001), and treatment with an aromatase inhibitor is able to counter the masculinizing effects of high temperature (Kwon et al., 2000).

In the Atlantic silverside *M. menidia*, incubation of larvae at higher temperatures increases the proportion that differentiate as males (Conover and Kynard, 1981). The temperature-sensitive period was during the mid-larval stage, and subsequent temperature fluxes had no effect on sex ratio, suggesting a switch-type mechanism operates to control sex in this species (Conover and Fleisher, 1986). The temperature responsiveness of *M. menidia* also has a genetic component since progeny from different females respond differently to temperature influences (Conover and Kynard, 1981), and different sires also can have a strong effect on temperature responsiveness (Conover and Heins, 1987a). In nature, ocean temperatures are suspected to affect sex ratio in *Menidia* species such that females are produced from earlier, colder spawning conditions, allowing additional time for ovarian growth (Conover, 1984; Middaugh and Hemmer, 1987). This temperature responsiveness is affected by latitude (Conover and Heins, 1987b), such that northern populations from Canada do not respond to temperature, whereas those from South Carolina do (Lagomarsino and Conover, 1993). These genetic differences allow distinct populations of *M. menidia* to adjust sex ratios appropriately at different latitudes to maximize fitness.

Low temperature is also capable of biasing sex differentiation toward females in two other atherinids, *O. bonariensis* and *Patagonina hatcheri*. The two species show distinctive responses to temperature: *O. bonariensis* sex ratio is influenced without threshold over a broad range of temperatures, whereas *P. hatcheri* sex is only influenced at temperature extremes and otherwise has genetically determined sexes (Strüssmann et al., 1996b,c). The temperature-sensitive period for *O. bonariensis* (Strüssmann et al., 1997) was during the first few weeks posthatching, similar to that seen for *Menidia*.

In the loach *M. anguillicaudatus*, elevated temperature has been shown to skew sex ratios towards male (Nomura et al., 1998). Masculinization was also induced by elevated temperatures in genetically female (gynogenetic) diploids, although interestingly, some males also rarely appeared in certain control crosses as well, suggesting that other factors such as aneuploidy or autosomal sex factors may also influence sex differentiation in this species. In the synchronous hermaphrodite *R. marmoratus*, low temperature incubation (20 vs. 30 °C) increased the proportion of primary males from 3.8% to 74.5%, whereas other physical variables such as salinity and illumination had no consistent effect (Harrington, 1967; Harrington and Crossman, 1976). Recently, the lack of effect of salinity on sex differentiation was confirmed in *O. niloticus* (Abucay et al., 1999).

In a comprehensive survey of temperature and pH effects on sex determination among 39 teleost species, 33 cichlid species in the genus *Apistogramma* (bred from field-collected specimens) and *Poecilia melanogaster* (from a laboratory stock) were found to be significantly affected by larval incubation temperature (Roemer and Beisenherz, 1996). In most but not all cases, increasing temperature (range 23–29 °C) elevated the percentage of males in broods. The effect of pH was less pronounced, but, in general, high pH conditions reduced the proportion of males, in some cases to less than 10% (in *A. caetei*). In contrast, pH has been found to have a significant effect on sex ratio within broods of *Pelvicachromis pulcher*, *P. subocellatus*, *P. taeniatus*, *Apistogramma borelli*, *A. caucatoides*, and *X. helleri*, where low and high pH produce male and female-biased broods, respectively (Rubin, 1985).

Although sex determination in tilapia species is known to be controlled polygenically by major and minor factors on the sex chromosomes and autosomes (see Section 5.5), temperature influences on sex ratio have also been detected (Baroiller and D'Cotta, 2000). In *Oreochromis mosambicus*, genetically female groups (derived from crosses between sex-reversed XX males and regular females) exposed to low temperature (19 °C) incubation during early development resulted in 89% males (Mair et al., 1989). In a similar study, *O. mosambicus* exposed to a range of temperatures (20–32 °C) in early development displayed an increasing proportion of males with elevated temperature (Wang and Tsai, 2000). In *O. aureus* (which has primarily a ZW system), warm temperatures (32 °C) induced differentiation of 20% females compared to 3% observed in controls (Mair et al., 1989), whereas more males (98% vs. 63% in controls) have been observed at higher temperatures in other experiments (Desprez and Melard, 1998b). Fluctuating temperature regimes also can induce masculinization, but less effectively than a constant high (35 °C) temperature (Baras et al., 2000). In *O. niloticus*, elevated temperature generally has a masculinizing effect that is affected by, and can override, genetic influences on sex determination (Baroiller et al., 1995, 1996; Baras et al., 2001), but a feminizing effect has also been observed in all-male and YY strains of *O. niloticus*, particularly in inbred vs. outbred strains (Abucay et al., 1999). Environmental conditions are anticipated to have variable effects on sex differentiation depending on the genetic background and developmental stability of different strains. These observations imply that sex determination is very labile in different tilapia species and that, depending on the exact combinations of genetic modifiers present in different strains, environmental effects on sex determination may be variable in strength and direction, and may also be very sensitive to the level of inbreeding and consequent developmental stability within a strain (Purdom, 1993; Abucay et al., 1999). Temperature lability may provide evolutionary advantages to

tilapia species by providing higher numbers of males with increased capacity for dispersal (Baras et al., 2000), but would also be expected to affect the establishment of sex chromosomes with complete control over the sex determination process and would also result in the accumulation of balancing autosomal genetic factors.

Genetic effects on temperature responsiveness have also been detected in *Poeciliopsis lucida*, a viviparous species: Exposure of embryos from a sensitive strain to elevated rearing temperatures before parturition can bias the sex ratio towards males (Schultz, 1993). Analysis of F₁ progeny derived from reciprocal crosses between responsive and nonresponsive strains also showed that this effect arises primarily from the genotype of the progeny rather than from maternal influences. Recently, elevated temperature has been shown to have a masculinizing effect on sex determination in the honmoroko, *Gnathopogon caeruleus* (Fujioka, 2001), a species with primarily an XX/XY system of sex determination. In this study, intersexes could be sex-reversed. XX males were positively identified by progeny testing, and significant family effects were found to influence sex ratios at normal temperatures as well as the response to masculinizing effects of elevated temperatures.

In *Anguilla*, low-temperature incubation did not affect sex ratio in *A. rostrata* (Peterson et al., 1996), whereas male-biased sex ratios appear to be slightly enhanced by elevated larval incubation temperatures (Holmgren, 1996) in *A. anguilla* or by high stock densities in both species (Roncarati et al., 1997; Krueger and Oliveira, 1999). Based on field studies of lamprey (where gonadal differentiation can change during development; Lowartz and Beamish, 2000), environmental factors may influence sex ratio such that elevated temperatures reduce the incidence of males under high-growth conditions or lower population densities (Beamish, 1993; Docker and Beamish, 1994). In other fish where temperature influences on sex ratio have been specifically examined, no effects have been observed, including northern populations of *F. heteroclitus* and *Cyprinodon variegatus* (Conover and Demond, 1991), the mosquitofish (*G. affinis*) (Bennett and Goodyear, 1978), and the bloater (*Coregonus hoyi*) (Eck and Allen, 1993).

In other fish, indications of temperature-dependent sex determination have been suggested. In channel catfish *Ictalurus punctatus*, sex is normally determined genetically by an XY system, but high temperature extremes applied during the critical period for sex determination result in female-skewed sex ratios, which indicate influence by environmental factors as well (Patino et al., 1996). In sockeye salmon (*Oncorhynchus nerka*), a temperature elevation occurring during embryonic development has been associated with a female-biased sex ratio (Craig et al., 1996), and similarly, elevated temperatures are associated with female-biased sex ratios in *Epiplatys chaperi* (Van Doorn, 1962) and *G. aculeatus* (Lindsey, 1962). At normal rearing temperatures (25 °C), the sex ratio of sea bass (*D. labrax*) populations is normally male biased, but low-temperature incubation (15 °C) during the labile period of gonad development results in all-male populations (Blázquez et al., 1998b; Pavlidis et al., 2000). In contrast, in hiram *P. olivaceus*, high temperature reduced the numbers of females (Tabata, 1995; Yamamoto, 1999), and in the barfin flounder *V. moseri*, a difference in rearing temperature from 14 to 18 °C near the time of gonadal differentiation results in equal sex ratios in the former to all male progeny in the latter (Goto et al., 1999). In marbled sole, *Limanda yokohamae*, masculinization has also been shown to be induced by elevated (25 vs. 15 °C) temperatures (Goto et al., 2000a), as have goldfish and black rockfish *S. schlegeli* (Goto et al., 2000b; Lee et al.,

2000). Some temperature effects on sex determination may be quite subtle (e.g. in atipa *Hoplosternum littorale*), detectable only by careful examination of intrafamily responses that are otherwise masked in populations by genetic variance among different families (Hostache et al., 1995). A discussion of other factors (day length, radiation, water quality, crowding, fertilization timing) reported to influence sex ratio has previously been presented (Chan and Yeung, 1983).

The above studies clearly reveal that sex determination can be influenced by external physical variables such as temperature in most fish families examined. In some cases, the species utilize these influences as a strategy to improve reproductive success, whereas in others, the effects on sex determination may not occur naturally, and may arise from disruptions of normal sex-determination processes under extreme environmental conditions. Indeed, the viability of germ cells of two species of fish (*O. bonariensis* and *P. hatcheri*) have been shown to be sensitive to elevated temperatures (Strüssmann et al., 1998), suggesting that pathological effects on gonadal development may indeed occur. Similarly, temperature has been found to influence expression of a *SRY*-related *Sox* gene in a reptile (Western et al., 1999).

6.3. Behavioural control of sex differentiation

Some Perciforme hermaphroditic fishes can change sex depending on their social interaction with conspecifics (Fishelson, 1970; Robertson, 1972). This fascinating behavioural process has opened new avenues of theoretical considerations on evolutionary forces shaping sex allocation, and has provided an amazing experimental system in which to study the physiology, behaviour and evolution of sex-determination processes (Chan and Yeung, 1983; Warner, 1988; Ross, 1990; Shapiro, 1990; Iwasa, 1991; Francis et al., 1993). The types of hermaphroditic fishes that are female to male sex changers (protogynous) or male to female changers (protandrous) have been previously described in Section 3.2 and Appendix A. The process of sex inversion can involve a complete reorganization of the reproductive system, with replacement of gonadal cell types, duct systems, hormone profiles, and sex-specific behaviours. Changes can begin immediately upon a shift in social status of an individual, and, depending on conditions, can be completed as quickly as a few weeks [e.g. *A. melanopus* (Godwin, 1994b)] or as long as several years (e.g. *A. frenatus* (Hattori, 1991)]. The evolution of sex-changing strategies in fish may arise from ontogenetic differences in mortality or growth rate occurring (between the sexes) that are capable of influencing reproductive success (Iwasa, 1991).

Both protogynous and protandrous fish appear to initiate early gonadal development as females. Protandrous fish reverse this early gonadal state in most individuals during initial sexual differentiation to become males, and then reverse it again to an ovarian state during late sex-reversal as members of a breeding social group (Shapiro, 1992). This undifferentiated mode of gonadal development (see Section 3) implies that female gonadal differentiation may be primary in both protogynous and protandrous species. In some species, initial gonadal transformations are not necessarily completed to a state where all individuals possess either male or female gonads: For example, the largest individual within nonbreeders of the protandrous *A. frenatus* can have gonads intermediate between male and female, providing flexibility for the direction of sex change depending on the

course of social dynamics that occurs within the group (Hattori, 1991). Similar flexibility exists among the Gobiidae (see below).

Social units in behavioural sex-changing fish are comprised of a group of smaller individuals of a common sex, and a fewer number (sometimes one) of larger dominant individual(s) of the opposite sex. When a dominant individual exits the social group, or no longer can maintain control of all subordinates, the next largest individual may switch sex to assume the role of the former dominant member. Variations on this strategy are observed both in protogynous species [e.g. *A. squamipinnis* (Fishelson, 1970; Shapiro, 1979, 1986); *Centropyge* sp. (Moyer and Nakazono, 1978b; Moyer and Zaiser, 1984; Sakai and Kohda, 1997); *T. bifasciatum* (Warner and Swearer, 1991); *Epinephelus coioides* (Quinitio et al., 1997); *Trimma okinawae* (Sunobe and Nakazono, 1990); *Xyrichtys pentadactylus* (Nemtsov, 1985); and *Coryphopterus* sp. (Cole and Robertson, 1988; Cole and Shapiro, 1995)] and in protandrous species (e.g. *Amphiprion* sp.; Fricke and Fricke, 1977; Ross, 1978; Fricke, 1979; Ochi, 1989; Godwin, 1994a; Hattori, 1994). The system of dominant animal replacement is not absolute, however, since occasionally high-ranking members of the social group can switch sex even in the presence of a dominant animal (Moyer and Zaiser, 1984).

The mechanisms that fish use to interpret social signals is complex, but is based on the individual's status within the social group and the opportunity that exists to breed with conspecifics (Ross, 1990; Shapiro, 1990). As criteria for sex change, species may utilize behavioural interactions between sexes, size relative to peers, sex ratio of groups, and possibly pheromonal or other chemical stimuli (Shapiro, 1981b; Ross et al., 1983; Cole and Shapiro, 1995). A balance exists between suppression forces (i.e. dominant individuals suppressing sex change through aggression) and inductive forces (presence of smaller individuals of same sex, or size and sex ratio) to assess breeding opportunity within a social group (Ross, 1981; Godwin, 1994a). This balance can shift depending on population density, food resources, and niche availability. Behavioural control systems are not anticipated to be present where strong genetic sex-determination systems are operating (see Section 5).

Since behavioural cues shared among individuals are important for initiating the sex-reversal process, populations tend to be relatively small, or individuals may tend to remain in restricted geographical areas (such as reefs) for extended periods. Since the probability of sex change is influenced by social interactions, population abundance can affect the process in several species. In the protogynous *C. julis*, higher stock densities have been correlated with earlier sex inversion (Lejeune, 1987), but if population densities become very large, sex inversion may also be inhibited, due to increased encounters among dominant individuals (e.g. in protogynous *Centropyge potteri* Lutnesky, 1994), or because individuals may acquire an alternate unpaired mate from the population prior to sex change (Ochi, 1989; Hattori, 1991; Hattori and Yanagisawa, 1991b). Removal of multiple males from larger breeding groups can result in a one-to-one sex inversion of females to replace the lost dominant males (Shapiro, 1980, 1981a), and multiple sex changes can also occur in larger (more than seven animals) but not smaller social groups of *T. duperrey* (Ross et al., 1990). Thus, if population sizes are very small, or no smaller conspecifics are available in the social group, sex change may not occur (Ross et al., 1983; Quinitio et al., 1997) since opportunities for breeding are limited. Some all-female groups of protogynous *A. squamipinnis* may remain stable for many months, yet removal of an individual may destabilize the group and induce sex change in large members (Shapiro, 1979). In another

protogynous species (the redband parrotfish *Sparisoma aurofrenatum*), females must leave the social group to become males, and these individuals then only breed when they gain control of a newly available social group (Clavijo, 1983).

In the Gobiidae, socially controlled, bidirectional sex inversion has been observed. In *Trimma okinawae*, removal of a dominant male from a breeding group can induce sex inversion of the largest female, but such resultant males retain both ovarian and testicular tissue, and can undergo a second sex reversal back to female if another larger male is placed in the group (Sunobe and Nakazono, 1993). In simultaneous hermaphrodite species of *Lythrypnus*, both functional testis and ovary are found within individual fish, yet each only adopts either a male or female behaviour pattern (St. Mary, 1993, 1994, 1996). Such a strategy provides flexibility to rapidly adopt a sex that maximizes reproductive output, depending on species-specific strategies (such as nest building and parental care), or changes in ecology or population structure (sex ratio, relative size, or population and species density).

Social control of sex determination has also been observed in the Midas cichlid *Cichlasoma citrinellum*. However, in this case, differentiation as male or female is initially determined by an individual's relative size as a juvenile: Animals assessing themselves as larger than average within their group are directed towards male development (Francis and Barlow, 1993). As suggested by the authors, this may reflect a heterochronic variation of the social controls of initial sex determination and subsequent sex inversion described above.

6.4. Pollution

Considerable information exists that indicates environmental pollutants can cause serious impacts on fish reproduction (Kime, 1995, 1998; Sumpter, 1997). The complexity of physiological processes involved in gonadal differentiation and maturation provides many opportunities for chemical interference both in males and females. Disruptions include general effects on gonad morphology, rates of spermatogenesis and oogenesis (including vitellogenesis), ovulation, spermiation, and/or impaired numbers or quality of gametes, as well as effects on reproductive behaviour (e.g. Munkittrick et al., 1992; Jones and Reynolds, 1997). The types of chemicals involved in disruptions include heavy metals, organophosphates, organochlorines, and complex or undefined mixtures of compounds found in pesticides, herbicides, industrial waste, or contaminated waters, soils or sediments from natural environments. In many cases, the biochemical mechanisms by which reproductive impairment is mediated are not known, and impacts are noted by features such as reduced gonadosomatic index or failure to undergo sexual maturity. Specific examples of targeted impacts of chemical pollutants on fish reproduction have also been observed, for example endocrine effects on GnRH-stimulated gonadotropin production, steroid hormone production, steroid-dependent thyroxine and T3 production, and reduced neurological or physiological responses to prostaglandin pheromones (e.g. Leatherland and Sonstegard, 1980; McMaster et al., 1991, 1995; Van Der Kraak et al., 1992a,b; Kime, 1995; Waring and Moore, 1997). In other cases, effects on reproduction may also be caused indirectly by pollution-induced stress, since maturation, sex steroid levels, and gamete quality can all be influenced by stress in teleosts (Campbell et al., 1994; Brooks et al., 1997).

In addition to general impairment of reproduction, some environmental xenobiotics have been noted to induce reversals of sexual phenotype at the biochemical or morpho-

logical levels (Bortone and Davis, 1994; Sumpter, 1997). These effects are not usually complete sex inversions, but rather are associated with induction of sex-specific proteins or the appearance of secondary sex characteristics in the wrong sex, and probably reflect specific action of chemical pollutants interacting with sex-determination and differentiation pathways to reverse the sexual phenotype. For example, exposures of fish to complex mixtures of chemicals in bleached kraft mill effluent (BKME) can result in disruptions in sexual phenotype. In mosquitofish (*G. affinis*), secondary sex characteristics are regulated by androgens (Rosa Molinar et al., 1996), and fish downstream of kraft mill effluent production points can be masculinized, displaying elongation of the anal fin into a gonopodium or effects on female sexual behaviour (Howell et al., 1980; Drysdale and Bortone, 1989; Krotzer, 1990; Cody and Bortone, 1997). This influence, which does not affect gonadal sexual differentiation (Hunsinger et al., 1988), appears to be mediated by androgens derived from microbially degraded plant sterols (i.e. stigmastanol and β -sitosterol) (Denton et al., 1985). In fathead minnows (*Pimephales promelas*), laboratory exposure to BKME also increases the number of fish displaying secondary sex characteristics (Kovacs et al., 1995). In goldfish, such compounds (i.e. β -sitosterol) can decrease in vivo and in vitro production of androgens and reduce gonadal cholesterol levels (MacLatchy et al., 1997), suggesting that this sterol may affect the availability or conversion of cholesterol by *P450scc* to steroids (see Section 4.1). β -sitosterol also has estrogen receptor binding activity in trout and goldfish (Tremblay et al., 1995), and is able to induce vitellogenin in trout in vivo (Mellanen et al., 1996).

Recently, sewage treatment plant effluents have been noted to influence sexual phenotypes of fish, including sex reversal, appearance of intersexual gonads, expression of sex-specific proteins, feminization of male gonadal ducts, or the retardation or advancement of reproductive maturity (Kruzynski et al., 1984; Harries et al., 1996; Lye et al., 1997; Sumpter, 1997; Jobling et al., 1998; Rodgers-Gray et al., 2001; Afonso et al., in press). Notably, some nonionic surfactants present in sewage effluents (e.g. 4-nonylphenol), bisphenol-A, and some phthalates have been shown to have estrogenic activity in fish, being able to bind to estrogen receptors and induce vitellogenin in vitro and in vivo, and impair gonadal development (Jobling and Sumpter, 1993; Ren et al., 1993; Jobling et al., 1995, 1996; Tremblay et al., 1995; Lech et al., 1996; Nimrod and Benson, 1996; Harrelson et al., 1997; Ashfield et al., 1998). In Atlantic salmon, exposure to 4-nonylphenol induces zona radiata eggshell proteins as well as vitellogenin, implying a general estrogenic effect (Arukwe et al., 1997; Madsen et al., 1997). Importantly, some estrogenic endocrine-disrupting compounds can also act as antiandrogens or androgen agonists (Sohoni and Sumpter, 1998), indicating the complexity by which pollutants may exert their effects on sexual phenotypes and function.

In a study with rainbow trout, nonylphenol, chlordecone, PCBs (Aroclor 1245), and lindane were all able to induce vitellogenin and estrogen receptors in trout hepatocytes in vitro (Flouriot et al., 1995). This effect was blocked by some antiestrogens (i.e. tamoxifen), and both nonylphenol and chlordecone can displace estrogen from its receptor, and can induce a reporter gene with an ER element in COS cells (a nonpiscine, nonhepatic cell type), indicating that the feminizing effects of some of these chemicals act directly. In contrast, PCBs and lindane did not affect the reporter gene activity in COS cells, suggesting these compounds have estrogenic activity mediated by metabolites produced

by conversion in hepatic cells. Chlordane has been shown to bind to the estrogen receptor of the spotted sea trout (Thomas and Smith, 1993), and chlordane, DDT, and two forms of DDE were able to induce vitellogenin and estrogen receptors in juvenile rainbow trout, despite estrogen-receptor binding affinities between 1000- and 156,000-fold weaker than for estradiol (Donohoe and Curtis, 1996).

Exposure of fish to defined or crude mixtures of organic solutions (e.g. PCBs, oil refinery treatment plant effluent, or harbour dredge material), pesticides, and herbicides also have endocrine disrupting activity in fish, inducing or inhibiting the production of vitellogenin (Chen and Sonstegard, 1984; Chakraborty, 1993; Arukwe et al., 1997; Janssen et al., 1997) or estrogen-responsive reporter gene activities (Zacharewski et al., 1995). Some polyaromatic hydrocarbons (β -naphthoflavone and 20-methylcolanthrene) have been shown to influence estradiol (but not testosterone) production from salmon follicles in vitro (Afonso et al., 1997). In this latter case, the mechanism of steroid disruption is not known; however, exposure of ovarian follicles to PAHs has been shown to induce the xenobiotic metabolizing enzyme CYP1A1 (Campbell and Devlin, 1996), an enzyme also implicated in the catabolism of estradiol (Ball et al., 1990; Spink et al., 1992).

Other examples of xenobiotic effects on gonadal sex differentiation in fish have been noted. In the protogynous *M. albus*, acute or chronic exposure of females to malathion reduced in vitro production of sex steroids (both testosterone and estradiol) and aromatase activity, and affected the number of animals with intersex gonads (Singh, 1993). Field observations of sex ratios in sea lamprey populations exposed to the lampricide 3-trifluoromethyl-4-nitrophenol (TFM) indicate a shift from male to female bias (Purvis, 1979), and although indirect effects other than chemical exposure (e.g. population density) may also play a feminization role in this case, TFM has been shown to bind to estrogen receptors and induce vitellogenin in vitro in other fish species (Hewitt et al., 1998). In rainbow trout, ovarian development was impaired and the proportion of females was reduced in laboratory populations exposed to the organochlorine mixture Aroclor 1260 (Matta et al., 1998), whereas no effect was observed for methoxychlor (Krisfalusi et al., 1998). Methoxychlor also was found to have no effect on sex ratios in medaka, whereas, β -hexachlorocyclohexane can induce vitellogenesis and oocyte development in male medaka, resulting in an ovotestis (Wester and Canton, 1986). Nonylphenol or octylphenol has been shown to induce an ovotestis in medaka at both early and late developmental stages (Gray and Metcalfe, 1997; Gray et al., 1999), but effects on sex ratios have not been detected in all studies using this compound (Gray and Metcalfe, 1997; Nimrod and Benson, 1998). Although nonylphenol can masculinize secondary sex characteristics in *Gambusia affinis*, no effect on gonadal sex ratio was observed (Dreze et al., 2000), revealing different sensitivities of primary and secondary sex differentiation to this xenoestrogen. Treatment of adult male medaka with estradiol can transiently induce an ovotestis (Shibata and Hamaguchi, 1988), and ethinyl estradiol injected into medaka eggs results in gonadal feminization of XY medaka with a good correlation between gonadal and secondary sex characteristics was observed providing a useful model for detection of maternally transmitted environmental estrogens (Papoulias et al., 2000). Similarly, injection of DDT into medaka eggs of the same strain results in sex inversion of XY individuals (Edmunds, 1999).

In male common carp, exposure to 4-*tert*-pentyphenol during the critical period for sex determination (24–51 days posthatch) reduced the number of primordial germ cells and

affected gonadal structure, including the induction of oviduct formation (Gimeno et al., 1996, 1997). Treatment during the critical period influenced oviduct morphology depending on the dosage and timing and could induce feminization (Gimeno et al., 1998a), and oviducts were stably retained once formed even if the treatment was withdrawn, providing a useful marker for xenobiotic effects. Treatment of adult males caused demasculinization, impacting spermatogenesis, spermatocrit, and germinal epithelium development (Gimeno et al., 1998b). These studies by Gimeno et al. demonstrate the usefulness of monosex strains in detecting effects of pollution on sex reversal. This approach, and the use of genetic sex identification using Y-chromosomal DNA markers, has also been used in rainbow trout and chinook salmon. All-male populations of rainbow trout (produced by crosses between YY males and regular XX females) were found not to be affected by nonylphenol (Madigou et al., 2001), whereas XY chinook salmon have been found to develop as females in wild populations in the Columbia River, USA (Nagler et al., 2001), and XY chinook salmon alevin exposed to sewage and pulp mill effluent can be either fully or partially sex reversed (Afonso et al., in press). In these cases, care must be exercised to ensure that the markers are sex specific and very tightly linked to the sex-determination locus in the populations under examination.

During the course of their evolution in aqueous environments, fish have been exposed to a variety of natural endocrine disrupting compounds for which mechanisms have been developed to avoid serious influences on sexual phenotypes. However, the studies outlined above strongly indicate that levels and types of environmental pollutants currently found in aquatic habitats are able to affect sex differentiation and reproductive performance in fish, both at late stages of gonadal function as well as during the early period of gonadal sex determination.

7. Elucidation of sex-determining mechanisms in fish species

To elucidate the mode of sex determination used in a particular species, a defined set of experiments should be carried out which investigates the influence of environmental factors, the role of genetic factors, and the stability of sex determination under conditions known to affect the process in other species.

7.1. Cytogenetic studies

One of the most rapid ways that the sex-determination mechanism used by a species can be discerned is by determining the karyotype of male and female individuals. Although many species do not display heteromorphic sex chromosomes (see Appendix B), if they do, the mode of sex determination can be defined with certainty as genetic (see Sections 5.2 and 5.3).

7.2. Analysis of sex ratios among families

Sex-determination mechanisms can also be determined from sex ratios among families. Progeny derived from 20 to 50 single-pair crosses should be produced under controlled

conditions, and sex ratios determined where mortality is shown not to be a significant influencing factor. If sex ratios do not deviate significantly from 1:1 among families, it is very likely, but not certain, that sex is determined by a chromosomal sex-determination system (see Section 5.5). Sex ratios should be examined at several life history stages and different age classes (i.e. pre- and post-first maturity) to investigate the possibility of sequential hermaphroditism. Sex ratios differing from 1:1 may implicate polyfactorial or environmental controls (see Sections 5.5.1 and 6), in which case it may be desirable to perform more complex breeding experiments involving multiple crosses per parent to determine the distribution of genetic factors among individuals, or to conduct experiments where physical variables are altered (e.g. temperature, pH, rearing density, growth rate, etc.) to examine external influences.

7.3. Examine progeny sex ratios from sex-reversed individuals

If experiments examining sex ratios among families do not produce relatively equal numbers of males and females, then experiments described in this section may not provide significant further data. However, if male/female ratios are consistent under a variety of conditions and in many different crosses, this is most likely produced by either an XY or ZW sex-determination system, and environmental and polygenic factors are probably minor influences. To distinguish between XY and ZW modes, sex-reversed individuals should be produced using estrogen and androgen treatments (see Section 6.1), and crosses performed with regular sex fish. As described in Section 5.6, progeny sex ratios can determine which sex is heterogametic (the sex-reversed parent yielding a 3:1 sex ratio biased to the opposite sex is heterogametic), and crosses involving both types of sex-reversed individuals should be used. In practice, the production of functional sex-reversed animals may provide some experimental challenge since the dose and timing of treatment may need to be determined empirically for each species (see Section 6.1), but in the majority of cases, fertile sex-reversed individuals can be produced. A variety of different steroids should be employed, starting with estradiol-17 β and ethynylestradiol for feminizations, and 17 α -methyltestosterone and the nonaromatizable 17 α -methylidihydrotestosterone for masculinizations (see Table 4).

7.4. Development of monosex strains

In the absence of molecular markers, an alternative strategy for genetic sex identification involves the production of genetically defined all-female or all-male strains (Donaldson and Devlin, 1996; Beardmore et al., 2001). Monosex strains can be produced by combining a defined set of genetic crosses with sex-reversal technology, and are simplest to implement when a chromosomal sex-determination systems is operating, although theoretically, it may also be possible to develop monosex strains in polygenically controlled systems by selective breeding.

Monosex stocks can be produced by continuing the experiments described in Section 7.3 above. For example, in XY systems, masculinized XX fish develop as functional males and will produce all-female progeny in crosses with regular females (see Section 5.6). Such lines can be maintained by treating a portion of the progeny with androgen at the time of

sex determination to allow production of sex-reversed XX broodstock males for the next generation (a procedure routinely employed by the aquaculture industry). However, since regular males are also present in first-generation androgen-treated groups, initial establishment of monosex fish requires distinguishing between masculinized XX males and regular XY males. This can be accomplished by test crossing each individual male (with regular females) to identify XX fish that produce only female progeny. Since the labile period for sex determination occurs prior to morphological or histological differentiation of the gonad (needed to evaluate the test cross), the establishment of separate androgen-treated groups for each test cross must be performed in the first generation.

Alternative methods can be used to identify the genetic sex of sex-reversed individuals. For example, gynogenetic offspring from species using an XY system will necessarily be XX fish, thus ensuring that all sex-reversed males developing from androgen-treated groups have a female genotype. Alternatively, hormone treatments may be applied at doses or times that induce incomplete sex inversion, resulting in hermaphroditic animals (see Section 6). Thus, with an XY species, androgen treatments that produce animals with an ovotestis are usually of XX genotype, and sperm isolated from testis tissues (by gentle homogenization) can be used to establish monosex strains. In a similar strategy, application of hormones at late stages of sex determination can result in incomplete sex inversions, producing androgen-treated XX animals with a testis that lack a sperm duct (Johnstone et al., 1979a,b; Johnstone and Youngson, 1984; Bieniarz et al., 1991).

For the production of male monosex strains in an XY system, two approaches may be used. The first is similar to the procedure used to produce all-female strains, but requires one additional generation to accomplish. In crosses involving feminized animals described above in Sections 7.1–7.3, XY females can be identified by test crosses with regular XY males, and if the Y chromosome is homozygous viable in the species (see Sections 5.3 and 5.6), these test crosses should produce 25% YY males. If estrogens are again applied early in development to a portion of the test-cross progeny, YY female fish can be produced. YY females can be distinguished from XY females by test crossing to male siblings from untreated groups (which will either be XY or YY males). If sufficient crosses are performed, some will be YY female by YY male, and estrogen treatment again applied to a subset of their progeny will allow establishment of YY female broodstock. This protocol can be facilitated by cryopreservation of sperm from YY males identified in earlier generations. An alternative method for producing all-male stocks involves the use of androgenesis (see Section 5.7.4): In XY species, approximately 50% of the progeny obtained will be of YY genotype, and if feminized with estrogens, such animals can be used in crosses with androgenetic YY male siblings to produce all-male strains that can be propagated by sex inversion of a portion of the progeny produced in each generation.

For ZW species, crosses involving sex-reversed and regular fish can also be used to develop monosex strains in an approach complementary to that described above for XY systems.

7.5. Isolation of sex-specific DNA markers

Isolation of sex-linked genetic markers has been accomplished for several fish species (see Section 5.4). The haploid genome size of typical fish species is approximately

1.0×10^9 bp, distributed among approximately 25 chromosomes (Hinegardner and Rosen, 1972). If chromosome arms are assumed to have a recombinational length of 50 map units (as is found in many other organisms), and number 1.5 times the number of chromosomes (assuming equal numbers of acrocentric and metacentric chromosomes), typical total genetic lengths of fish genomes are expected to be approximately 1875 map units. For sex-linked markers to be useful in diagnostic assays for genetic sex, they need to be exceedingly closely linked to the sex-determination locus, on the order of less than 0.1 map unit away. With approximately 1Mb of DNA per map unit, it is clear that tens of thousands (1.0×10^9 bp/(10^5 bp/marker)) of randomly selected clones would need to be examined to isolate a useful genetic marker if the sex-determination locus is the only sex-limited gene on the sex chromosomes. Some sex-linked DNA markers have been identified by chance in fish (Du et al., 1993; Prodohl et al., 1994), but fortunately, two factors can improve the probability of recovering sex-specific clones. The first factor is that many sex chromosomes have significant proportions of their length developed as cytogenetically distinct structures (see Sections 5.3 and 5.4.3), thus making the target for isolating sex-specific DNA much larger than the size of a single gene. For example, sex-specific DNA isolated from the Y chromosome of chinook salmon comprises over 2 Mb of sequence on this chromosome (Devlin et al., 1998).

The second factor enhancing recovery of sex-specific DNA is that molecular biology methods have been developed that improve recovery of sequences that are present in one genome and absent in another. In one suite of such techniques, many DNA fragments can be examined simultaneously, thus allowing the genome to be surveyed much more rapidly than by using randomly selected single markers. Techniques in this class use a comparison of fragment patterns obtained between males and females, and include DNA fingerprinting using multilocus minisatellite DNA probes (Wright, 1993), Rapid Amplification of Polymorphic DNA (RAPD) (Iturra et al., 1998), and amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs) (Young et al., 1998). In cases where polymorphism may be anticipated at a marker locus, analyses involving pooled DNA from several siblings of the same sex (bulk segregant analysis) may be beneficial (Williams et al., 1993). However, these methods only improve the efficiency of screening for sex-specific markers by approximately 1 to 2 orders of magnitude, and still leave a daunting task in many cases.

Another general approach involves subtraction of sequences between one genome and another to allow selective isolation of sex-specific sequences. The basis of these approaches is that the homogametic sex contains all sequences that the heterogametic sex does, except for those in the vicinity of the sex-determination locus. Thus, in XY systems, female DNA can be “subtracted” from the male genome, to leave only male-specific DNA sequences. Such subtraction methods include hybridization approaches (e.g. the Phenol-Enhanced Reassociation Technique (PERT); Kohne et al., 1977; Devlin et al., 1991) or PCR amplification (e.g. Representational Difference Analysis, RDA; Lisitsyn et al., 1993), and can improve the efficiency of identifying unique sequences many thousand fold, making feasible experiments searching for sex-limited DNA sequences. In cases where the mode of sex determination is known, subtraction procedures can be performed in one direction only (i.e. in XY systems, subtraction of male against female genomic DNA), but where this information is lacking subtraction must be performed bidirectionally.

Once putative sex-specific DNA sequences have been isolated, they should be analyzed in defined families to ensure cosegregation with the sex-determination locus. In most cases, it will also be desirable to characterize the clones in detail to allow development of simple PCR diagnostics, to improve testing procedures (improve speed, and allow determination of genetic sex from minute, nonlethal samples of tissue or blood) and to assist in the detection of exceptional offspring (Du et al., 1993; Devlin et al., 1994; Matsuda et al., 1997; Iturra et al., 1998; Coughlan et al., 1999). The necessity of such characterization is exemplified by a study involving a Y-linked DNA marker for medaka, which is sex-linked only in some strains of this species (Matsuda et al., 1997).

8. Conclusion and future

A summary of sex-determination processes in fish (Fig. 1) reveals a complex pattern of variables and mechanisms utilized among different fish orders. Many mechanisms are shared among groups of fish orders, and some orders (e.g. Perciformes) employ many different approaches for controlling sex differentiation. This rich species array of biological material provides a significant opportunity for future sex determination research, promising to yield much new exciting information about how fish control gonadal differentiation at the cellular, organismal, population, and species levels. Emerging genomics technologies capable of analyzing the genetic and physiological constitutions of organisms in great detail are now allowing identification of many of the major molecular components involved in cellular gonad differentiation, in both germ and somatic cell lineages. These tools and approaches enable examination of how developmental cascades of gene expression, physiology, and metabolism unfold in the developing embryo, how they can be affected by environmental variables, and how they can be reprogrammed naturally in hermaphroditic species and can be affected abnormally in exceptional or experimental individuals. Many components identified as potential effectors of sex-differentiation in fish will be able to be tested, using transgenesis or by genetic mapping of natural and induced allelic variants, to examine their necessity and function. Understanding the genetic and physiological components of sex-determination systems will also allow us to specifically test hypotheses relating to the evolutionary pressures that shape sex-determination pathways. Comparative study of the abundant species and sex-determination systems existing in fish is likely to reveal a fascinating competition of alleles within and among genetic loci involved in sex determination, each *selfishly striving* for stronger influence over pathways without disrupting fitness of the individual. Understanding how and why such differences have emerged, and how they are maintained and altered by different selection regimes in nature, will provide a significant and rewarding challenge for the future.

Acknowledgements

Sincere gratitude is extended to E. Jinghan and J. Khattra for assistance in the preparation of Appendices A and B, and to T. Kobayashi, M. Matsuda, C.E. Morrey, M.

Nakamura, R. Phillips, J. Stein, and M. Tanaka for providing figures and unpublished information. The authors also appreciate the very useful scientific and editorial comments provided by and T. Hutchinson, P. Campbell, E. Donaldson, E. Jinghan, M. Matsuda, J. Smith, D.S. Wang, and three anonymous reviewers who spent a great deal of time reviewing the manuscript, and provided many useful suggestions. RHD gratefully acknowledges the Endocrine Modulators Steering Group of the European Chemical Council who provided initial support for the preparation of this review, and YT gratefully acknowledges funding from CREST of JST (Japan Science and Technology).

Appendix A. Hermaphroditism in fish

Order	Family	Species	Type	References
Myxiniformes	Myxinidae	<i>Eptatretus stouti</i>	H	(Gorbman, 1990)
Aulopiformes	Chlorophthalmidae	<i>Chlorophthalmus albatrossis</i>	S	(Smith, 1975; Ota et al., 2000)
Anguilliformes	Muraenidae	<i>Echidna nebulosa</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Gymnomuraena zebra</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Gymnothorax fimbriata</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Gymnothorax flavimarginatus</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Gymnothorax gracilicauda</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Gymnothorax margaritophorus</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Muraena pavonina</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Rhinomuraena</i> spp.	A	(Fishelson, 1990, 1992)
		<i>Uropterygius fasciolatus</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Uropterygius polyspilus</i>	G	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Siderea grisea</i>	S	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Siderea picta</i>	S	(Fishelson, 1992)
		<i>Siderea thyrsoidea</i> (<i>Siderea thyrzoidea</i>)	S	(Fishelson, 1992)
Clupeiformes	Clupeidae	<i>Tenualosa toli</i>	A	(Milton et al., 1997)
Cypriniformes	Cobitidae	<i>Cobitis taenia</i>	A	(Lodi, 1980)
		<i>bilineata (canestrini)</i>		
	Cyprinidae	<i>Barbus tetrazona</i> <i>tetrazona</i>	G	(Takahashi and Shimizu, 1983)
Cyprinodontiformes	Cyprinodontidae	<i>Rivulus marmoratus</i>	S	(Koenig et al., 1982; Soto et al., 1992; Soto and Noakes, 1994; Lubinski et al., 1995)
Perciformes	Poeciliidae	<i>Xiphophorus helleri</i>	G	(Lodi, 1979)
	Callanthiidae	<i>Callanthias parini</i>	G	(Anderson and Johnson, 1984)
	Centracanthidae	<i>Spicara maena</i>	G	(Reinboth, 1979)
		<i>Spicara smarís</i>	G	(Tsangrdis and Filippousis, 1992)
		<i>Lates calcarifer</i>	A	(Moore, 1979; Guiguen et al., 1993, 1994, 1995)
	Cichlidae	<i>Amphilophus citrinellus</i> (<i>Cichlasoma citrinellum</i>)	H?	(Francis and Barlow, 1993)
		<i>Crenicara punctulata</i>	G	(Carruth, 2000)
	Cirrhitidae	<i>Amblycirrhitus pinos</i>	G?	(Sadovy and Donaldson, 1995)

Order	Family	Species	Type	References
		<i>Cirrhichthys aprinus</i>	G?	(Kobayashi and Suzuki, 1992; Sadovy and Donaldson, 1995)
		<i>Cirrhichthys aureus</i>	GA	(Kobayashi and Suzuki, 1992)
		<i>Cirrhichthys falco</i>	G?	(Kobayashi and Suzuki, 1992; Sadovy and Donaldson, 1995)
		<i>Cirrhichthys oxycephalus</i>	G?	(Sadovy and Donaldson, 1995)
		<i>Cirrhitis pinnulatus</i>	G?	(Sadovy and Donaldson, 1995)
		<i>Cirrhitoys hubbardi</i>	H	(Kobayashi and Suzuki, 1992)
		<i>Cyprinocirrhites polyactis</i>	H	(Kobayashi and Suzuki, 1992)
		<i>Neocirrhites armatus</i>	G	(Sadovy and Donaldson, 1995)
	Gobiidae	<i>Coryphopterus alloides</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1990)
		<i>Coryphopterus dicrus</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1990)
		<i>Coryphopterus eidolon</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1990)
		<i>Coryphopterus glaucofraenum</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1992, 1995; Cole et al., 1994)
		<i>Coryphopterus hyalinus</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1990)
		<i>Coryphopterus lipernes</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1990)
		<i>Coryphopterus nicholsii</i>	G	(Breitburg, 1987; Kroon and Liley, 2000)
		<i>Coryphopterus personatus</i>	G	(Robertson and Justines, 1982)
		<i>Coryphopterus thrux</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1990)
		<i>Coryphopterus urospilus</i>	G	(Cole and Shapiro, 1990)
		<i>Eviota afelei</i>	G	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Eviota disrupta</i>	G	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Eviota epiphanes</i>	G	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Eviota fasciola</i>	G	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Fusigobius neophytes</i>	G	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Gobiodon micropus</i>	GA	(Nakashima et al., 1996)
		<i>Gobiodon oculolineatus</i>	GA	(Nakashima et al., 1996)
		<i>Gobiodon quinquestrigatus</i>	GA	(Cole, 1990; Nakashima et al., 1996)
		<i>Gobiodon rivulatus</i>	GA	(Nakashima et al., 1996)
		<i>Gobiosoma multifasciatum</i>	G	(Robertson and Justines, 1982)
		<i>Lophogobius cyprinoides</i>	G	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Lythrypnus dalli</i>	S	(St. Mary, 1993, 1994)
		<i>Lythrypnus zebra</i>	S	(St. Mary, 1993, 1996)
		<i>Paragobiodon echinocephalus</i>	GA	(Cole, 1990; Kuwamura et al., 1994; Nakashima et al., 1995)
		<i>Priolepis hiplotti</i>	GS?	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Priolepis eugenius</i>	G	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Trimma okinawae</i>	GA	(Sunobe and Nakazono, 1990, 1993)
		<i>Trimma caesiura</i>	GS?	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Trimma taylori</i>	GS?	(Cole, 1990)
		<i>Trimma unisquamis</i>	GS?	(Cole, 1990)
	Grammatidae	<i>Gramma loreto</i>	G	(Amador, 1982; Asoh and Shapiro, 1997)

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	Labridae	<i>Achoerodus viridis</i>	G	(Gillanders, 1995)
		<i>Anampses geographicus</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Bodianus diplotaenia</i>	G	(Hoffman, 1983)
		<i>Bodianus eclancheri</i>	G	(Hoffman, 1983)
		<i>Bodianus rufus</i>	G	(Hoffman, 1983)
		<i>Choerodon azurio</i>	G	(Nakazono and Kusen, 1991)
		<i>Choerodon schoenleinii</i>	G	(Ebisawa et al., 1995)
		<i>Cirrhilabrus temminckii</i>	G	(Kobayashi and Suzuki, 1990)
		<i>Clepticus parrae</i>	G	(Warner and Robertson, 1978)
		<i>Coris julis</i>	G	(Reinboth, 1979; Bentivegna et al., 1985; Bruslé, 1987; Lejeune, 1987; Reinboth and Bruslé Sicard, 1997)
		<i>Epibulus insidiator</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Halichoeres bivittatus</i>	G	(Laming and Ebbesson, 1984)
		<i>Halichoeres garnoti</i>	G	(Warner and Robertson, 1978)
		<i>Halichoeres maculipinna</i>	G	(Warner and Robertson, 1978)
		<i>Halichoeres marginatus</i>	G	(Shibuno et al., 1993a,b, 1995)
		<i>Halichoeres melanochir</i>	G	(Yogo, 1985)
		<i>Halichoeres pictus</i>	G	(Warner and Robertson, 1978)
		<i>Halichoeres poeyi</i>	G	(Warner and Robertson, 1978)
		<i>Halichoeres</i> <i>poecilopterus</i>	G	(Fukui et al., 1991; Lee et al., 1991; Fujiwara et al., 1992)
		<i>Halichoeres radiatus</i>	G	(Warner and Robertson, 1978)
		<i>Halichoeres scapularis</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Hologymnosus annulatus</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Labroides dimidiatus</i>	G	(Kuwanura, 1984)
		<i>Labrus bergylta</i>	G	(Dipper and Pullin, 1979)
		<i>Labrus bimaculatus</i> (<i>Labrus ossifagus</i>)	G	(Dipper and Pullin, 1979)
		<i>Nelabrichthys ornatus</i>	G	(Andrew et al., 1996)
		<i>Notolabrus celidotus</i> (<i>Pseudolabrus celidotus</i>)	G	(Jones, 1980a)
		<i>Pseudolabrus japonicus</i>	G	(Lee et al., 1992b; Morita et al., 1997)
		<i>Pteragogus flagellifer</i> (<i>Pteragogus flagellifera</i>)	G	(Lee et al., 1992a)
		<i>Semicossyphus pulcher</i>	G	(Cowen, 1990)
		<i>Stethojulis trilineata</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Symphodus melanocercus</i>	G	(Warner and Lejeune, 1985)
		<i>Symphodus ocellatus</i>	G?	(Warner and Lejeune, 1985; Bentivegna, 1989)
		<i>Symphodus roissali</i>	G	(Warner and Lejeune, 1985)
		<i>Symphodus tinca</i>	G	(Warner and Lejeune, 1985)
		<i>Thalassoma bifasciatum</i>	G	(Warner and Robertson, 1978; Warner and Hoffman, 1980; Kramer et al., 1988; Koulis and Kramer, 1989; Warner and Swearer, 1991; Kramer et al., 1993; Shapiro and Rasotto, 1993)

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		<i>Thalassoma cupido</i>	G	(Meyer, 1977)
		<i>Thalassoma duperrey</i>	G	(Ross, 1981, 1987; Ross et al., 1983, 1990; Nakamura et al., 1989; Hourigan et al., 1991)
		<i>Thalassoma lucasanum</i>	G	(Warner, 1982)
		<i>Thalassoma lutescens</i>	G	(Shibuno et al., 1994)
		<i>Thalassoma pavo</i>	G	(Wernerus and Tessari, 1991)
		<i>Thalassoma purpureum</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Thalassoma quinquevittatum</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Xyrichtys dea</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Xyrichtys geisha</i>	G	(Leem et al., 1998)
		<i>Xyrichtys martinicensis</i>	G	(Clark et al., 1988)
		<i>Xyrichtys melanopus</i>	G	(Clark and Shen, 1986)
		<i>Xyrichtys novacula</i> (<i>Xyrichtys novacula</i>)	G	(Bentivegna and Rasotto, 1987)
		<i>Xyrichtys pavo</i>	G	(Clark and Shen, 1986)
		<i>Xyrichtys pentadactylus</i>	G	(Nemtsov, 1985; Clark and Shen, 1986; Clark et al., 1988)
	Lethrinidae	<i>Lethrinus lentjan</i> (Lacepede 1802)	G	(Wassef, 1991)
		<i>Lethrinus mahsena</i> (Forsskal 1775)	G	(Wassef, 1991)
		<i>Lethrinus miniatus</i>	G	(Church, 1997)
		<i>Lethrinus rubrioperculatus</i>	G	(Vidalis and Tsimenidis, 1997)
	Malacanthidae	<i>Branchiostegus japonicus</i>	H	(Watanabe and Suzuki, 1996)
		<i>Lopholatilus chamaeleonticeps</i> (<i>Lopholatilus chameleonticeps</i>)	G?	(Erickson and Grossman, 1986)
	Moronidae	<i>Morone saxatilis</i>	A?	(Moser et al., 1983)
	Nemipteridae	<i>Nemipterus peronii</i>	H	(Young and Martin, 1985)
		<i>Pentapodus porosus</i>	H	(Young and Martin, 1985)
		<i>Scolopsis bilineatus</i>	G	(Young and Martin, 1985)
		<i>Scolopsis monogramma</i>	G	(Young and Martin, 1985)
		<i>Scolopsis taeniopterus</i>	G	(Young and Martin, 1985)
	Nototheniidae	<i>Eleginops maclovinus</i> (Cuv. and Val. 1830)	A	(Calvo et al., 1992)
	Percophidae	<i>Matsubaraea fusiforme</i>	A?	(Noichi et al., 1991)
	Pinguipedidae	<i>Parapercis snyderi</i>	G	(Kobayashi et al., 1993a; Ohnishi et al., 1997)
	Polynemidae	<i>Polydactylus indicus</i>	H	(Kagwade, 1976)
		<i>Polydactylus sexfilis</i>	A	(Szyper et al., 1991)
	Pomacanthidae	<i>Centropyge ferrugatus</i>	G	(Sakai, 1997; Sakai and Kohda, 1997)
		<i>Centropyge interruptus</i>	G	(Moyer and Nakazono, 1978a; Moyer and Zaiser, 1984)
		<i>Centropyge multispinis</i>	G	(Bruce, 1980)

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		<i>Centropyge potteri</i>	G	(Lutnesky, 1988, 1989, 1994, 1996)
		<i>Centropyge tibicen</i>	G	(Moyer and Zaiser, 1984)
		<i>Genicanthus bellus</i>	G	(Hioki et al., 1995)
		<i>Genicanthus caudovittatus</i>	G	(Bruce, 1980)
		<i>Genicanthus lamarek</i>	G	(Suzuki et al., 1979)
		<i>Genicanthus semifasciatus</i>	G	(Shen and Liu, 1976; Suzuki et al., 1979)
		<i>Genicanthus watanabei</i>	G	(Hioki et al., 1995)
		<i>Holacanthus tricolor</i>	G	(Hourigan and Kelley, 1985)
	Pomacentridae	<i>Amphiprion akallopisos</i>	A	(Fricke, 1979)
		<i>Amphiprion bicinctus</i>	A	(Fricke, 1983)
		<i>Amphiprion clarkii</i>	A	(Moyer and Nakazono, 1978b; Ochi, 1989; Hattori, 1991, 1994; Hattori and Yanagisawa, 1991a,b)
		<i>Amphiprion frenatus</i>	A	(Moyer and Nakazono, 1978b; Bruslé Sicard and Reinboth, 1990; Hattori, 1991; Bruslé Sicard et al., 1992, 1994; Nakamura et al., 1994)
		<i>Amphiprion melanopus</i>	A	(Godwin and Thomas, 1993; Godwin, 1994a,b; Elofsson et al., 1997)
		<i>Amphiprion ocellaris</i>	A	(Moyer and Nakazono, 1978b)
		<i>Amphiprion perideraion</i>	A	(Moyer and Nakazono, 1978b)
		<i>Amphiprion polymnus</i>	A	(Moyer and Nakazono, 1978b)
		<i>Amphiprion sandracinos</i> (<i>Amphiprion sandracinos</i>)	A	(Moyer and Nakazono, 1978b)
		<i>Dascyllus aruanus</i>	G	(Coates, 1982; Godwin, 1995)
		<i>Dascyllus marginatus</i>	G	(Godwin, 1995)
		<i>Dascyllus reticulatus</i> (Richardson)	G	(Schwarz and Smith, 1990)
	Pseudochromidae	<i>Anisochromis straussi</i>	G	(Springer et al., 1978)
	Scaridae	<i>Calotomus carolinus</i>	G	(Robertson et al., 1982)
		<i>Calotomus japonicus</i>	G	(Kusen and Nakazono, 1991)
		<i>Calotomus spinidens</i>	G	(Robertson et al., 1982)
		<i>Chlorurus gibbus</i>	G	(Choat et al., 1996)
		<i>Chlorurus sordidus</i> (<i>Scarus sordidus</i>)	G	(Yogo, 1985; Choat et al., 1996)
		<i>Cryptotomus roseus</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)
		<i>Scarus collana</i> (<i>Scarus gharadaqensis</i>)	G?	(Bebars, 1978)
		<i>Scarus frenatus</i>	G	(Choat et al., 1996)
		<i>Scarus iserti</i> (<i>Scarus croicensis</i>)	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)
		<i>Scarus niger</i>	G	(Choat et al., 1996)
		<i>Scarus psittacus</i>	G	(Choat et al., 1996)
		<i>Scarus rivulatus</i>	G	(Choat et al., 1996)
		<i>Scarus schlegeli</i> (<i>Scarus schelgeli</i>)	G	(Choat et al., 1996)
		<i>Scarus taeniopterus</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)
		<i>Scarus vetula</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)

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		<i>Sparisoma atomarium</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)
		<i>Sparisoma aurofrenatum</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978; Clavijo, 1982)
		<i>Sparisoma chrysopterum</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)
		<i>Sparisoma radians</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)
		<i>Sparisoma rubripinne</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978)
		<i>Sparisoma viride</i>	G	(Robertson and Warner, 1978; Cardwell, 1990; Cardwell and Liley, 1991; Koltes, 1993)
	Serranidae	<i>Anthias taeniatus</i> (<i>Pseudanthias taeniatus</i>)	G?	(Katayama, 1978)
		<i>Centropristis striata</i>	G	(Shepherd and Idoine, 1993)
		<i>Cephalopholis cruentata</i> (<i>Epinephelus cruentatus</i>)	G	(Nagelkerken, 1979)
		<i>Cephalopholis taeniops</i>	G	(Siau, 1994)
		<i>Diplectrum formosum</i>	S	(Gomez Gaspar, 1985)
		<i>Epinephelus aeneus</i>	G	(Bruslé and Bruslé, 1976; Hassin et al., 1997)
		<i>Epinephelus akaara</i>	G	(Tanaka et al., 1990a,b; Lee, 1995)
		<i>Epinephelus bruneus</i>	G	(Lee, 1995)
		<i>Epinephelus coioides</i> (<i>Epinephelus suillus</i>)	G	(Tan-Fermin, 1992; Tan-Fermin et al., 1994; Sheaves, 1995; Qunitio et al., 1997)
		<i>Epinephelus diacanthus</i>	G	(Chen et al., 1980)
		<i>Epinephelus guttatus</i>	G	(Shapiro et al., 1993a,b, 1994; Sadovy et al., 1994)
		<i>Epinephelus malabaricus</i>	G	(Sheaves, 1995)
		<i>Epinephelus marginatus</i> (<i>Epinephelus gauza</i>)	G	(Bruslé and Bruslé, 1976; Chauvet, 1988; Mandich, 1998)
		<i>Epinephelus morio</i>	G	(Johnson and Thomas, 1995; Coleman et al., 1996; Johnson et al., 1998)
		<i>Epinephelus niveatus</i>	G	(Moore and Labisky, 1984)
		<i>Epinephelus polyphekadion</i> (<i>Epinephelus microdon</i>)	G	(Bruslé et al., 1989; Debas et al., 1989)
		<i>Epinephelus septemfasciatus</i>	G	(Lee, 1995)
		<i>Epinephelus striatus</i>	G*	(Jory and Iversen, 1989; Colin, 1992; Sadovy and Colin, 1995)
		<i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	G	(Lee et al., 1995)
		<i>Epinephelus rivulatus</i>	G	(Mackie, 2000)
		<i>Estriatus</i> sp.	G	(Jory and Iversen, 1989)
		<i>Hemanthias vivanus</i> (Jordan and Swain)	G	(Hastings, 1981)
		<i>Hypoplectrus nigricans</i>	S	(Fischer and Petersen, 1987)
		<i>Hypoplectrodes huntii</i> (<i>Ellerkeldia huntii</i> (Hector))	G	(Jones, 1980b)

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		<i>Hypoplectrodes maccullochi</i>	G	(Webb and Kingsford, 1992)
		<i>Mycteroperca bonaci</i>	G	(Jory and Iversen, 1989; Garcia Cagide and Garcia, 1996)
		<i>Mycteroperca interstitialis</i>	G	(Bullock and Murphy, 1994)
		<i>Mycteroperca microlepis</i>	G	(Roberts and Schlieder, 1983; Coleman et al., 1996)
		<i>Mycteroperca phenax</i>	G	(Coleman et al., 1996)
		<i>Mycteroperca rubra</i>	G	(Siau and Boauain, 1994)
		<i>Mycteroperca venenosa</i>	G	(Garcia Cagide and Garcia, 1996)
		<i>Paralabrax humeralis</i> (Valenciennes)	G	(Borquez et al., 1988)
		<i>Paralabrax maculatofasciatus</i>	G	(Hastings, 1989)
		<i>Plectropomus leopardus</i> (Lacepede)	G	(Ferreira and Russ, 1995)
		<i>Plectropomus maculatus</i>	G	(Ferreira, 1993)
		<i>Pseudanthias bicolor</i> (Anthias bicolor)	G	(Howe, 1996)
		<i>Pseudanthias squamipinnis</i> (Anthias squamipinnis or Franzia squamipinnis)	G	(Fishelson, 1970; Shapiro, 1979, 1980, 1981b,c, 1986, 1988; Yogo, 1985)
		<i>Serranus baldwini</i>	S	(Leonard, 1993)
		<i>Serranus cabrilla</i>	S	(Reinboth, 1979)
		<i>Serranus fasciatus</i>	G	(Petersen, 1990)
		<i>Serranus scriba</i>	S	(Abd-el-Aziz and Ramadan, 1990; Siau and Bouain, 1994)
		<i>Serranus subligarius</i>	S	(Oliver, 1991, 1997; Oliver et al., 1995)
		<i>Serranus tigrinus</i>	S	(Pressley, 1981)
		<i>Serranus tortugarum</i>	S	(Fischer and Petersen, 1987; Petersen and Fischer, 1996)
	Sparidae	<i>Acanthopagrus australis</i>	A	(Pollock, 1985; Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Acanthopagrus berda</i>	A	(Garratt, 1993; Tobin et al., 1997)
		<i>Acanthopagrus bifasciatus</i>	A	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Acanthopagrus butcheri</i>	G	(Rowland and Snape, 1994)
		<i>Acanthopagrus latus</i>	G	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Acanthopagrus schlegeli</i>	A	(Chang and Yueh, 1990a; Chang et al., 1994, 1995b; Chang and Lin, 1998)
		<i>Boops boops</i>	G	(Gordo, 1995)
		<i>Calamus leucosteus</i>	G	(Waltz et al., 1982)
		<i>Calamus nodosus</i>	G	(Horvath et al., 1990)
		<i>Cheimerius nufar</i>	H	(Coetzee, 1983)
		<i>Chrysoblephus cristiceps</i>	G	(Buxton, 1990; Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Chrysoblephus laticeps</i>	G	(Buxton, 1990; Buxton and Garratt, 1990)

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		<i>Chrysoblephus puniceus</i>	G	(Garratt, 1986; Buxton and Garratt, 1990; Garratt, 1993)
		<i>Crysophrys major</i>	G	(Huang et al., 1974)
		<i>Dentex gibbosus</i>	GA	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990; Pajuelo and Lorenzo, 1995)
		<i>Dentex tumifrons</i> (<i>Taius tumifrons</i>)	G	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Diplodus annularis</i>	A	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Diplodus sargus capensis</i>	A	(Mann and Buxton, 1998)
		<i>Diplodus sargus sargus</i> (<i>Diplodus sargus</i>)	A	(Micale and Perdichizzi, 1994)
		<i>Diplodus sargus kotschy</i>	A	(Abou-Seedo et al., 1990)
		<i>Lithognathus aureti</i>	A	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Lithognathus mormyrus</i>	A	(Besseau and Faliex, 1989; Buxton and Garratt, 1990; Kraljevic et al., 1995)
		<i>Pachymetopon aenum</i>	G	(Buxton and Clarke, 1986; Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Pagellus acarne</i>	A	(Reinboth, 1979; Lamrini, 1986; Reinboth et al., 1986)
		<i>Pagellus bogaraveo</i>	AS?	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990; Krug, 1990)
		<i>Pagellus erythrinus</i>	G	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990; Ghorbel, 1996)
		<i>Pagrus auriga</i> (<i>Sparus caeruleostictus</i>)	G	(Alekseev, 1982a, 1983)
		<i>Pagrus caeruleostictus</i> (<i>Pagrus ehrenbergi</i> , <i>Sparus ehrenbergi</i>)	G	(Alekseev, 1982a, 1983)
		<i>Pagrus major</i> (<i>Chrysophrys major</i>)	H	(Matsuyama et al., 1988)
		<i>Pagrus pagrus</i> (<i>Pagrus orphus</i> , <i>Sparus pagrus</i>)	G	(Alekseev, 1982a, 1983)
		<i>Pterogymnus laniarius</i>	G	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Rhabdosargus globiceps</i>	G	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	A	(Yeung and Chan, 1985a, 1987a,b,d; Chan and Yeung, 1989)
			G	(Yeung and Chan, 1985b)
		<i>Sarpa salpa</i>	A	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990)
		<i>Sparidentex hasta</i> (Valenciennes)	A	(Kime et al., 1991; Al-Marzouk et al., 1994)
		<i>Sparus aurata</i>	A	(Eckstein et al., 1978; Zohar et al., 1978; Bruslé Sicard and Fourcalt, 1997)
		<i>Sparus caeruleostictus</i>	A	(Alekseev, 1982b)
		<i>Sparus ehrengeri</i>	A	(Alekseev, 1982b)
		<i>Sparus latus</i> (Houttuyn) (<i>Acanthopagrus latus</i>)	A	(Hong et al., 1991)
		<i>Sparus macrocephalus</i>	A	(Ruan et al., 1996)

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Siluriformes Stomiiformes	Terapontidae	<i>Sparus pagrus</i>	A	(Aleksseev, 1982b)
		<i>Spondylisoma cantharus</i> (<i>Cantharus cantharus</i>)	G	(Buxton and Garratt, 1990; Dulcic and Kraljevic, 1996)
		<i>Taius tunifrons</i>	A	(Aoyama, 1955)
		<i>Terapon jarbua</i> (<i>Therapon jarbua</i>)	G	(Liu, 1979)
		<i>Trichonotus filamentosus</i>	G	(Kusen et al., 1991)
	Heteropneustidae	<i>Heteropneustes fossilis</i>	H	(Saxena and Bhatia, 1977)
	Gonostomatidae	<i>Cyclothone atraria</i>	A	(Miya and Nemoto, 1985; Badcock, 1986)
		<i>Cyclothone microdon</i>	A	(Miya and Nemoto, 1985; Badcock, 1986)
		<i>Gonostoma bathyphilum</i>	A	(Badcock, 1986)
		<i>Gonostoma elongatum</i>	A	(Miya and Nemoto, 1985; Badcock, 1986)
		<i>Gonostoma gracile</i>	A	(Miya and Nemoto, 1985; Badcock, 1986)
Synbranchiformes	Synbranchidae	<i>Monopterus albus</i>	G	(Chan and Yeung, 1989; Tao et al., 1993; Yeung et al., 1993a,b,c; Xiao and Liu, 1995)
		<i>Synbranchus marmoratus</i>	G	(Lo Nostro and A, 1996; Ravaglia et al., 1997)

G, protogynous; A, protandrous; S, simultaneous/synchronous; H, bisexual juvenile gonad or hermaphroditism requiring further investigation; * mostly gonochoristic. This table provides a broad overview, but is not inclusive of all known hermaphroditic species.

Appendix B. Karyotypes where the presence of sex chromosomes has been investigated in fish

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
Rajiformes	Dasyatidae	<i>Dasyatis sabina</i>	68	XY	(Donahue, 1974; Kirpichnikov, 1981)
		<i>Dasyatis say</i>	68	XY	(Maddock and Schwartz, 1996)
	Rajidae	<i>Raja eglanteria</i>		ND	(Maddock and Schwartz, 1996)
	Rhinobatidae	<i>Platyrhinoidis triseriata</i>		XY	(Maddock and Schwartz, 1996)
		<i>Rhinobatus productus</i>		XY	(Maddock and Schwartz, 1996)
Acipenseriformes	Acipenseridae	<i>Acipenser transmontanus</i>	265–276	ND *	(Van Eenennaam et al., 1998b)
		<i>Acipenser medirostris</i>	234–263	ND	(Van Eenennaam et al., 1999a)
Anguilliformes	Anguillidae	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	38	ZW	(Passakas, 1981)
		<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	38	ND	(Cau et al., 1992; Gomez et al., 1993)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
Atheriniformes	Congridae	<i>Anguilla japonica</i>	38	ZW	(Park and Kang, 1979)
		<i>Anguilla rostrata</i>	38	ZW	(Passakas, 1981)
		<i>Astroconger myriaster</i>	38	ZW	(Park and Kang, 1979)
	Muraenidae	<i>Muraena helena</i>	42	ND	(Salvadori et al., 1989)
		<i>Gymnothorax eurostus</i>	42	XY	(Ojima, 1985)
	Ophichthidae	<i>Muraenichthys gymnotus</i>		Y–A	(Murofushi and Yosida, 1984)
	Atherinidae	<i>Basilichthys australis</i>		ND	(Gajardo and Arratia, 1981)
		<i>Basilichthys microlepidotus</i>		ND	(Gajardo and Arratia, 1981)
		<i>Odontesthes de Bueni</i>		ND	(Gajardo and Arratia, 1981)
		<i>Odontesthes mauleanum</i>		ND	(Gajardo and Arratia, 1981)
		<i>Chlorophthalmus albatrossis</i>	36	ND	(Ota et al., 2000)
Aulopiformes	Synodontidae	<i>Saurida</i>	48	ZW	(Nishikawa and Sakamoto, 1978)
		<i>undosquamis</i>			
		<i>Saurida. elongata</i>	48	ZW	(Nishikawa and Sakamoto, 1978; Ota et al., 2000)
		<i>Synodus ulae</i>	48	ZW	(Ota et al., 2000)
		<i>Synodud</i>	48	ZW	(Ota et al., 2000)
		<i>hoshinonus</i>			
		<i>Trachinocephalus myops</i>	26/27	ZZ–ZW ₁ W ₂	(Ota et al., 2000; Ueno et al., 2001)
Beloniformes	Adrianichthyidae	<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	48	ND; XY	(Uwa and Ojima, 1981; Matsuda et al., 1998)
Beryciformes	Berycidae	<i>Beryx splendens</i>		Y–A	(Ojima and Kikuno, 1986)
	Melamphaeidae	<i>Melamphaes parvus</i>	50	XY	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>Scopeloberyx mizolepis</i>	46	XY	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>bispinosus</i>			
		<i>Scopeloberyx robustus</i>	42	XY	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>Scopelogadus mizolepis</i>		XY	(Ebeling and Chen, 1970)
Carchariniformes	Carcharinidae	<i>Galeocerdo cuiver</i>	86	ND	(Maddock and Schwartz, 1996)
Characiformes	Anostomidae	<i>Leporinus lacustris</i>	54	XY	(Galetti et al., 1981)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
		<i>Leporinus silvestrii</i> , <i>L. obtusidens</i>	54	ZW	(Galetti et al., 1981)
		<i>Leporinus lacustris</i>	54	ND	(Mestriner et al., 1995)
		<i>Leporinus elongatus</i>	54	ZW	(Galetti and Foresti, 1986)
	Characidae	<i>Acestrorhynchus lacustris</i>	50	ND	(Das Neves Falcao and Bertollo, 1985)
		<i>Aphyocharax difficilis</i>	50	ND	(Souza et al., 1995)
		<i>Astyanax bimaculatus</i>	50	ND	(Morelli et al., 1983)
		<i>Astyanax fasciatus</i>	46, 48	ND	(Morelli et al., 1983)
		<i>Astyanax schubarti</i>	36	ND	(Morelli et al., 1983)
		<i>Astyanax scabripinnis paranae</i>	50	ND	(Morelli et al., 1983)
		<i>Astyanax scabripinnis</i>	50	ND	(Stange and Almeida-Toledo, 1993)
		<i>Galeocharax knerii</i>	52	ND	(Das Neves Falcao and Bertollo, 1985)
		<i>Oligosarcus hepsetus</i> , <i>O. macrolepis</i> , <i>O. pinto</i>	50	ND	(Das Neves Falcao and Bertollo, 1985)
		<i>Triportheus guentheri</i> , <i>T. flavus</i> , <i>T. elongatus</i> , <i>T. albus</i> , <i>T. paranense</i> , <i>T. signatus</i>	52	ZW	(Bertollo and Cavallaro, 1992; Sanchez and Jorge, 1999; Artoni et al., 2001)
		<i>Triportheus pictus</i> , <i>T. culter</i>	52	ND	(Sanchez and Jorge, 1999; Artoni et al., 2001)
	Characinidae	<i>Characidium fasciatum</i>	50–54	ZW	(Maistro et al., 1998)
	Curimatidae	<i>Semaprochilodus taeniurus</i>	54	ZW	(Feldberg et al., 1987; Val and de Almeida-Val, 1995)
	Erythrinidae	<i>Hoplias lacerdae</i>	50	XY	(Bertollo et al., 1978)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
Clupeiformes	Hemiodontidae	<i>Hoplias malabaricus</i>	40	ND	(Dergam and Bertollo, 1990)
		<i>Hoplias malabaricus</i>	40, 42	ND	(Lopez and Fenocchio, 1994)
		<i>Hoplias malabaricus</i>	40/39	Y–A, XY	(Bertollo and Mestriner, 1998; Bertollo et al., 2000; Born and Bertollo, 2000)
		<i>Apareiodon affinis</i>	54/55	ZZ/ZW ₁ W ₂	(Moreira et al., 1985; de Jesus et al., 1999)
		<i>Apareiodon ibitiensis</i> , <i>A. piracicabae</i>	54	ND	(Moreira et al., 1985)
		<i>Parodon tortuosus</i>	54	ND	(Moreira et al., 1985; de Jesus and Moreira-Filho, 2000)
		<i>Parodon hilarii</i>	54	ZW	(Moreira-Filho et al., 1993; de Jesus and Moreira-Filho, 2000)
	Serrasalminidae	<i>Serrasalmus spilopleura</i>	60	ND	(Nakayama et al., 2000)
	Clupeidae	<i>Brevoortia aurea</i>	46	Y–A	(Brum, 1996)
	Notopteridae	<i>Notopterus notopterus</i>	42	ND	(Sishi and Singh, 1983)
Cypriniformes	Balitoridae	<i>Noemacheilus botia</i>	50	ND	(Rishi et al., 1977)
	Balitoridae	<i>Nemachilus barbatulus</i>	50	ND	(Sofradzija and Vukovic, 1979)
	Cobitidae	<i>Botia dario</i> , <i>B. hymenophysa</i>	90	ND	(Rishi and Haobam, 1984)
		<i>Cobitis taenia</i>	48	ND	(Boron, 1995)
		<i>Cobitis taenia</i>	50/49	Y–A	(Saitoh, 1989)
		<i>Lepidocephalichthys berdmorei</i>	62	ZW	(Rishi and Haobam, 1984)
		<i>Lepidocephalichthys guntea</i>	51/52	ZO/ZZ	(Sharma and Tripathi, 1988)
		<i>Sabanejewia larvata</i>	50	ND	(Lodi and Marchionni, 1980)
	Cyprinidae	<i>Amblypharyngodon calbasumola</i>	50	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Barilius bendelisis</i>	50	ND	(Khuda-Bukhsh, 1979b)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
		<i>Barilius shacra</i>	52	XY	(Khuda Bukhsh et al., 1992)
		<i>Barilius barna</i> , <i>B. tileo</i>	50	ND	(Khuda Bukhsh et al., 1992)
		<i>Brachydanio</i> (<i>Danio</i>) <i>rerio</i>	50	ND *	(Rishi et al., 1977; Sharma et al., 1998)
		<i>Carassius</i> <i>carassius auratus</i>	100	XY	(Kirpichnikov, 1981)
		<i>Carassius auratus</i>	166	ND *	(Chen et al., 1996)
		<i>Carassius auratus</i> <i>gibelio</i>	156	ND *	(Shen et al., 1983)
		<i>Catla catla</i>	50	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Chela bacaila</i>	50	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Cirrhina reba</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Cirrhina mrigala</i> , <i>C. reba</i>	50	ND	(Rishi, 1981)
		<i>Clenopharyngodon</i> <i>idellus</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Danio</i> (<i>Brachydanio</i>) <i>rerio</i>	50	ZW	(Rishi et al., 1977; Sharma et al., 1998)
		<i>Esomus danrica</i>	50	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Hypaphthalmichthys</i> <i>molitrix</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Labeo bata</i>	50	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Labeo rohita</i> , <i>L. calbasu</i>	50	ND	(Krishnaja and Rege, 1979)
		<i>Labeo cerulaeus</i>	48	ND	(Rishi, 1981)
		<i>Leuciscus</i> <i>carolitertii</i>	50	ZW	(Collares-Pereira et al., 1998)
		<i>Leuciscus</i> <i>pyrenaicus</i>	50	ZW	(Collares-Pereira et al., 1998)
		<i>Megalobrama</i> <i>amplycephala</i>	48	ND	(Lin, 1985)
		<i>Notropis ardens</i> , <i>N. braytoni</i> , <i>N. proserpinus</i>	50	ND	(Amemiya and Gold, 1987)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
Cyprinodontiformes	Aplocheilidae	<i>Parabramis pekinensis</i>	48	ND	(Lin, 1985)
		<i>Puntius sophore</i>	48	ND	(Rishi et al., 1977)
		<i>Puntius sophore</i>	48	ND	(Sharma et al., 1990)
		<i>Puntius ticto</i>	50	ND	(Sharma et al., 1990)
		<i>Puntius sarana</i>	50	ND	(Rishi, 1981)
		<i>Rasbora buchani</i>	50	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Rohlee colio</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Khuda-Bukhsh, 1977)
		<i>Scardinius erythrophthalmus</i>	50	ZW/ ZW' /ZZ	(Koehler et al., 1995)
		<i>Schizothorax richardsonii</i> , <i>S. kumaonensis</i>	98	ND	(Lakra et al., 1997)
		<i>Tor putitora</i> , <i>T. khudree</i>	100	ND	(Lakra, 1996)
		<i>Vimba vimba</i>	48	XY	(Rudek, 1974; Kirpichnikov, 1981)
	Cyprinodontidae	<i>Aplocheilus panchax</i>	38	ZW	(Khuda-Bukhsh, 1979a)
		<i>Nothobranchius guentheri</i>	36/35	Y–A	(Ewulonu et al., 1985)
		<i>Pterolebias hoignei</i>	46	XY	(Elder et al., 1991)
		<i>Pterolebias zonatus</i>	42	ND	(Elder et al., 1991)
		<i>Germenella pulchra</i>	50/49	Y–A	(Levin and Foster, 1972)
		<i>Megupsilon aporus</i>	48/47	Y–A	(Uyeno, 1973)
	Fundulidae	<i>Valencia lozanoi</i>	48	ND	(Delgado Bermejo and Moreno Millan, 1988)
		Unnamed mexican cyprinodontid	48/47	Y–A	(Uyeno and Miller, 1971)
		<i>Fundulus diaphanus</i>	48	XY	(Chen and Ruddle, 1970; Ebeling and Chen, 1970)
		<i>Fundulus parvipinnis</i>	48	XY	(Chen and Ruddle, 1970; Ebeling and Chen, 1970)
	Goodidae	<i>Allodontichthys hubbsi</i>	42/41	Y–A	(Miller and Uyeno, 1980)
	Poeciliidae	<i>Boleophthalmus boddaerti</i>	46	ZW	(Subrahmanyam, 1969)
		<i>Gambusia affinis affinis</i> , <i>G. hurtadoi</i> , <i>G. nobilis</i>	48	ZW	(Chen and Ebeling, 1968)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
		<i>Gambusia affinis holbrooki</i>	48	ZW	(Ojima, 1985)
		<i>Gambusia affinis holbrooki</i>	48	ND	(Black and Howell, 1979; Sharma and Tripathi, 1982; Krishnaja and Rege, 1983)
		<i>Gambusia gaigei</i>	48	ZW	(Campos and Hubbs, 1971)
		<i>Gambusia puncticulata puncticulata</i>	48	ZW	(Rab, 1984)
		<i>Glaridichthys falcatus</i> , <i>Quintana atrizona</i>	48	ND	(Rab, 1984)
		<i>Limia vittata</i>	46	ND	(Rab, 1984)
		<i>Poecilia formosa</i>	46	ND	(Sola et al., 1992b)
		<i>Poecilia mexicana mexicana</i>	46	ND	(Sola et al., 1992a)
		<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>	46	ND *	(Lodi, 1978)
		<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>	46	XY	(Nanda et al., 1990)
		<i>Poecilia latipinna</i>	48	ZW	(Sola et al., 1990)
		<i>Poecilia latipunctata</i>	46	ND	(Galetti and Rasch, 1993)
		<i>Poecilia sphenops</i>	46	ZW	(Rishi, 1976a; Haaf and Schmid, 1984 10731; Ojima, 1985; Manna, 1989; Nanda et al., 1993)
		<i>Poecilia velifera</i>	46	ZW	(Nanda et al., 1993)
		<i>Xiphophorus maculatus</i>	48	XY	(Foerster and Anders, 1977)
		<i>Xiphophorus variatus</i> , <i>X. montezumae cortezi</i> , <i>X. helleri strigatus</i> , <i>X. helleri guentheri</i> , <i>X. helleri helleri</i>	48	ND	(Foerster and Anders, 1977)
Gadiformes	Gadidae	<i>Theragra chalcogramma</i>	44	ND	(Ishii and Yabu, 1985)
		<i>Eleginus navaga</i>	26	ND	(Klinkhardt, 1994)
		<i>Gadus morhua marisalbi</i>	46	ND	(Klinkhardt, 1994)
	Lotidae	<i>Lota lota</i>	48	ND	(Klinkhardt, 1994)
Gasterosteiformes	Gasterosteidae	<i>Apeltes quadracus</i>	46	ZW	(Chen and Reisman, 1970; Ebeling and Chen, 1970)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
Gobiesociformes	Gobiesocidae	<i>Gasterosteus aculeatus</i>	42	ND	(Klinkhardt and Buuk, 1990a)
		<i>Gasterosteus wheatlandi</i>	42	XY	(Chen and Reisman, 1970; Ebeling and Chen, 1970)
		<i>Pungitius pungitius</i>	42	ND	(Klinkhardt and Buuk, 1990a)
		<i>Diademichthys lineatus</i>	48/47	XX/XO	(Arai et al., 1976)
		<i>Lepadogaster candollei</i>	46	XY	(Thode, 1987)
Gymnotiformes	Sternopygidae	<i>Eigenmannia</i> spp.	32/31	X ₁ X ₂ /Y	(de Almeida Toledo et al., 1984; Almeida-Toledo et al., 2000a)
Myctophiformes	Hypopomidae	<i>Brachyhypopomus pinnicaudatus</i>	42/41	X ₁ X ₂ /Y	(Almeida-Toledo et al., 2000b)
	Myctophidae	<i>Lampanyctus ritteri</i>	48/47	XX/XO	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>Parvilux ingens</i>	50/49	XX/XO	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>Symbolophorus californiensis</i>	48	XY	(Chen, 1969)
	Neoscopelidae	<i>Scopelogadus macleoti</i>	48	XY	(Chen, 1969)
Osteoglossiformes	Osteoglossidae	<i>Osteoglossum bicirrhosum</i>	56	XY	(Uyeno, 1973)
	Mormyridae	<i>Marcusenius brachistius</i>	48	XY	(Uyeno, 1973)
Perciformes	Belontiidae	<i>Betta splendens</i>	42	ND*	(Ratanatham and Patinawin, 1979)
		<i>Colisa fasciatus</i>	48	ZW	(Rishi, 1975; Sharma and Tripathi, 1988)
		<i>Colisa fasciatus</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Prasad, 1977)
	Blenniidae	<i>Trichogaster labiosus</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Prasad, 1977)
		<i>Colisa lalius</i>	46/45	ZZ/ZO	(Rishi, 1976a)
		<i>Parablennius (Blennius) tentaculatus</i> Brunnich	47/48	Y–A	(Carbone et al., 1987; Caputo et al., 2001)
		<i>Aidablennius sphynx</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)
		<i>Blennius ocellaris</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)
		<i>Lypophris adriaticus</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)
		<i>Lypophris pavo</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)
		<i>Lypophris trigloides</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)
		<i>Parablennius gattorugine</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)
		<i>Parablennius ponticus</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
		<i>Parablennius sanguinolentus</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 2001)
	Callionymidae	<i>Callionymus punctatus</i> , <i>C. doryssus</i>	38	XY	(Murofushi et al., 1984)
		<i>Callionymus beniteguri</i> , <i>C. ornatipinnis</i>	38/37	Y–A	(Murofushi et al., 1984)
	Carangidae	<i>Callionymus sagitta</i>	38	XY	(Dass, 1983)
		<i>Salar kalla</i>	48	ZW	(Dass, 1983)
		<i>Seriola dumerili</i>	48, 47	ND	(Vitturi et al., 1986)
		<i>Trachurus trachurus</i> , <i>T. mediterraneus</i>	48	ND	(Caputo et al., 1996a)
		<i>Trichnotus ovatus</i>		ZW	(Dass, 1983)
	Centrarchidae	<i>Lepomis cyanellus</i>	48	XX/XO	(Becak et al., 1966)
		<i>Micropterus punctulatus</i> , <i>M. treculi</i>	46	ND	(Thompson et al., 1978)
	Centropomidae	<i>Coreoperca herzi</i>	48	ND	
		<i>Coreoperca kawamebari</i>	48	ND	
		<i>Siniperca schezeri</i>	48	ND	
	Channichthyidae	<i>Chaenodraco wilsoni</i> , <i>Pagetopsis macropterus</i> , <i>Chionodraco myersi</i> , <i>C. hamatus</i>	48/47	Y–A	(Morescalchi et al., 1992b)
		<i>Channichthys rhinoceratus</i> , <i>Cryodraco antarcticus</i> , <i>Neopagetopsis ionah</i>			
	Channidae	<i>Channa stewartii</i>	104	ND	(Rishi and Haobam, 1984)
	Cichlidae	<i>Geophagus brasiliensis</i>	48	XY	(Michele and Takahashi, 1977)
		<i>Sarotherodon galilaeus</i> , <i>Tilapia zillii</i> , <i>Oreochromis aureus</i> , <i>O. mossambicus</i> , <i>O. spilurus</i> , <i>O. nyasalapia</i> , <i>O. macrochir</i>	44	ND *	(Majumdar and McAndrew, 1986)
		<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	44	XY	(Carrasco et al., 1999)
		<i>Oreochromis rendalli</i>	44	ND	(Foresti et al., 1983; Swanepoel et al., 1992)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
		<i>Oreochromis sparrmanii</i>	42	ND	(Swanepoel et al., 1992)
	Eleotridae	<i>Eleotris pisonis</i>	44	ZW	(Uribe-Alcocer et al., 1994)
	Gobiidae	<i>Apocryptichthus cantoris</i>	46	XY	(Dass, 1983)
		<i>Boleophthalmus boddarti</i>	46	ZW	(Kirpichnikov, 1981)
		<i>Dormitator maculatus</i>	46	ND	(del Carmen Maldonado et al., 1985)
		<i>Gobiodon citrinus</i>	44/43	XX/XO	(Arai and Sawada, 1974)
		<i>Gobiomorus dormitor</i>	48	ND	(del Carmen Maldonado et al., 1985)
		<i>Gobionellus shufeldti</i>	48/47	Y–A	(Pezold, 1984)
		<i>Gobius bucchichi</i>	44	ND	(Thode et al., 1983)
		<i>Gobius cruentatus</i>	46	ND	(Thode et al., 1983)
		<i>Gobius cobitis</i> ,	46	XY	(Thode et al., 1983)
		<i>G. paganellus</i>			
		<i>Gobius bucchichi</i>	40	XY	(Thode et al., 1983)
		<i>Luciogobius guttatus</i>	44	ND	(Mao et al., 1993)
		<i>Mogrundera obscura</i>	46	XY	(Nogusa, 1960)
		<i>Neogobius kessleri</i>	30/29	Y–A	(Vasil'ev and Vasil'eva, 1992)
		<i>Proterorhinus marmoratus</i>	46	XY	(Rab, 1985)
		<i>Tridentiger trigonocephalus</i>	44	ND	(Mao et al., 1993)
		<i>Synechogobius ommaturus</i>	44	XY	(Wang and Zhao, 1994)
		<i>Zosterisessor ophiocephalus</i>	46	ND	(Caputo et al., 1996b)
	Haemulidae	<i>Haemulon aurolineatum</i>	48	ND	(Duran Gonzalez et al., 1990)
	Istiophoridae	<i>Tetrapturus albidus</i>	48	XY	(Duran Gonzalez and Laguarda Figueras, 1992)
	Labridae	<i>Coris julis</i>	46/45	XX/XO	(Cataudella et al., 1973)
		<i>Coris julis</i>	46	XY**	(Duchac et al., 1982)
		<i>Coris julis</i>	48	ND	(Vitturi et al., 1988)
	Microdesmidae	<i>Parioglossus raoi</i>	46	ND	(Webb, 1986)
	Monodactylidae	<i>Monodactylus sebae</i>	48/47	Y–A	(Suzuki et al., 1988a)
		<i>Monodactylus argenteus</i>	48	ND	(Suzuki et al., 1988a)
	Moronidae	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	48	XY*	(Cano et al., 1996)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
Pleuronectiformes	Mugilidae	<i>Mugil cephalus</i>	48	ND	(Rossi et al., 1996)
	Nandidae	<i>Badis badis</i>	52	ND	(Sharma and Tripathi, 1984)
		<i>Nandus nandus</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Prasad, 1977)
	Nototheniidae	<i>Pagothenia hansonii</i> ,	46/45	Y–A	(Morescalchi et al., 1992a)
		<i>P. borchgrevinkii</i>			
		<i>Trematomus newnesi</i>	46/45	Y–A	(Morescalchi et al., 1992a)
		<i>Trematomus nicolai</i>	58/57	Y–A	(Morescalchi et al., 1992a)
	Percidae	<i>Accrina cernua</i>	48	XY	(Lieder, 1963)
		<i>Parapercis sexfasciata</i>	48	XY	(Ojima et al., 1984)
		<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>	48	ND	(Klinkhardt and Buuk, 1991)
	Pomacentridae	<i>Dascyllus trimaculatus</i>	48/47	XX/XO	(Arai and Inoue, 1976)
	Pholidae	<i>Enedrias nebulosus</i>	26	ND	(Mao and Jin, 1994)
	Scatophagidae	<i>Scatophagus argus</i>	48	XY	(Khuda-Bukhsh and Manna, 1977; Khuda-Bukhsh and Chakrabarti, 1999)
	Serranidae	<i>Epinephelus guttatus</i>	48	ND	(Ruiz Carus, 1983)
		<i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	48	ZW	(Dass, 1983)
	Sparidae	<i>Sparus macrocephalus</i>	48	ND	(Liu and Tian, 1991)
		<i>Pagrosomus major</i>	48	ND	(Liu and Tian, 1991)
		<i>Alectrias benjamini</i>	48	ND	(Mao and Qiu, 1996)
	Stichaeidae	<i>Bothus podas</i>	38	XY	(Vitturi et al., 1993b)
	Cynoglossidae	<i>Cynoglossus puncticeps</i>	40/39	ZZ/ZO	(Pense, 1965)
		<i>Symphurus plagiusa</i>	46/45	XX/XO	(LeGrande, 1975)
	Pleuronectidae	<i>Limanda limanda</i>	46	ND	(Klinkhardt, 1993)
		<i>Platichthys flesus</i>	48	ND	(Klinkhardt, 1993)
	Soleidae	<i>Microchirus ocellatus</i>	42	XY	(Vitturi et al., 1993a)
Salmoniformes	Argentiniidae	<i>Argentina silus</i>	44	XY	(Ebeling et al., 1971)
	Bathylagidae	<i>Bathylagus milleri</i>	60	XY	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>Bathylagus ochotensis</i>	54	XY	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>Bathylagus wesethi</i>	36	XY	(Chen, 1969)
		<i>Leuroglossus stilbius</i>	60	XY	(Chen, 1969)
	Galaxiidae	<i>Galaxias platei</i>	30	XO	(Campos, 1972)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
Scorpaeniformes	Salmonidae	<i>Coregonus sardinella</i>	80/81	XX/XY ₁ Y ₂	(Frolov, 1990)
		<i>Hucho hucho</i>	82–84	XY	(Rab et al., 1994)
		<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>	60	ND*	(Shelenkova, 1987)
		<i>Oncorhynchus nerka</i>	58/57	Y–A	(Thorgaard, 1978; Ueda and Ojima, 1984b)
		<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	58–63	XY**	(Thorgaard, 1977, 1983a; Ueda and Ojima, 1984a; Frolov, 1989; Colihueque et al., 2001)
		<i>Salmo salar</i>	58	ND*	(Bolla, 1987)
		<i>Salvelinus fontinalis</i>	84	ND	(Lee and Wright, 1981)
		<i>Salvelinus namaycush</i>	88	XY	(Phillips and Ihssen, 1985)
		<i>Cottus gobio</i>	48	ND	(Vitturi and Rasotto, 1990)
		<i>Cottus pollax</i>	48	XY	(Nogusa, 1960; Kirpichnikov, 1981)
Siluriformes	Platycephalidae	<i>Platycephalus tuberculatus</i>	48	ND	(Nayak and Khuda Bukhsh, 1988)
	Sebastidae	<i>Sebastes taczanowskii</i>	48	ND	(Sasaki and Sakamoto, 1977)
	Tetrarogidae	<i>Hypodytes rubripinnis</i>	48/47	Y–A	(Ueno and Kang, 1992)
	Ageneiosidae	<i>Ageneiosus brevifilis</i>	56	ND	(Fenocchio and Bertollo, 1992)
	Ariidae	<i>Netuma barba</i>	56	XY	(Brum, 1996)
	Bagridae	<i>Mystus cavassius</i>	58	ND	(Khuda-Bukhsh et al., 1980)
	Callychthyidae	<i>Mystus gulio</i>	58	XY	(Dass, 1983)
		<i>Mystus tengara</i>	54	XY	(Das and Srivastava, 1973)
		<i>Mystus tengara</i>	54	ZW	(Rishi, 1973)
		<i>Rita chrysea</i>	54	ND	(Das and Kar, 1977)
		<i>Callichthys callichthys</i>	52–58	ND**	(Sanchez, 1996)
		<i>Linee</i>			
Clariidae	Clariidae	<i>Clarias fuscus</i>	56	XY	(Luo et al., 1986)
		<i>Clarias gariepinus</i>	56	ZW*	(Ozouf Costaz et al., 1990)
		<i>Clarias batrachus</i>	50	ZW	(Pandey, 1997)
		<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>	68	XY	(Stein et al., 2001)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
	Ictaluridae	<i>Ictalurus furcatus</i>	60	ND	(Marian and Krasznai, 1982)
		<i>Noturus taylori</i>	40	XY	(LeGrande, 1981)
	Loricariidae	<i>Loricariichthys platymetopon</i>	54	ZW	(Scavone and Julio, 1995)
		<i>Hypostomus</i> sp.	64	ZW	(Artoni et al., 1998)
		<i>Microlepidogaster leucofrenatus</i>	54–56	ZW	(Andreatta et al., 1993)
		<i>Pseudotocinclus tietensis</i>	54	XY	(Andreatta et al., 1992)
		<i>Plecostomus ancistroides</i>	68	XY	(Michele et al., 1977)
		<i>Plecostomus macrops</i>	68	XY	(Ojima, 1985)
	Mochokidae	<i>Hemisynodontis membranaceous</i> , <i>Synodontis bastiani</i> , <i>S. courteti</i> , <i>S. sorex</i> , <i>S. schall</i> , <i>S. budgetti</i> , <i>S. ocellifer</i> , <i>S. violaceus</i>	54	ZW	(Agnese et al., 1990)
		<i>Synodontis filamentosus</i>	56	ZW	(Agnese et al., 1990)
	Pimelodidae	<i>Imparfinis mirini</i>	58	ZW	(Vissotto et al., 1997)
		<i>Rhamdia sapo</i>	58,59	ND	(Valcarcel et al., 1993)
	Plotosidae	<i>Plotosus canius</i>	36	ND	(Rishi and Singh, 1983a)
	Schilbeidae	<i>Pseudeutropius atherinoides</i>	58	ND	(Rishi and Singh, 1983a)
	Siluridae	<i>Callichrous bimaculatus</i>	42/41	Y–A	(Rishi, 1976b)
		<i>Silurus asotus</i>	58	ND	(Kim et al., 1988)
		<i>Wallago attu</i>	86	ND	(Rishi and Singh, 1983b)
Stomiiformes	Sternoptychidae	<i>Sternoptyx diaphana</i>	36/35	XX/XO	(Chen, 1969)
Synbranchiformes	Mastacembelidae	<i>Mastacembelus pancalus</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Prasad, 1977)
		<i>Macrognathus aculeatus</i>	48	ND	(Manna and Prasad, 1977)
	Synbranchidae	<i>Monopterus albus</i>	24	XY	(Liu, 1983)
Syngnathiformes	Syngnathidae	<i>Hippocampus hippocampus</i>	44	ND	(Vitturi and Catalano, 1988)
		<i>Hippocampus ramulosus</i>	48	ND	(Vitturi and Catalano, 1988)
Tetraodontiformes	Balistidae	<i>Balistes carolinensis</i>	44	ND	(Thode et al., 1994)
		<i>Rhinecanthus verrucosus</i> , <i>R. echarpe</i>	44	XY	(Ojima, 1985)

Order	Family	Species	2n	Sex chromosome system	References
		<i>Rhinecanthus aculeatus</i>	44	XY	(Ojima, 1985)
	Monacanthidae	<i>Odonus niger</i>	42	XY	(Ojima, 1985)
		<i>Parika scaber</i>	40	ND	(Murofushi et al., 1989)
		<i>Stephanolepis hispidus</i>	34	Y–A	(Brum, 1996)
	Tetraodontidae	<i>Stephanolepis cirrhifer</i>	32	Y–A	(Murofushi, 1980)
		<i>Arothron immaculatus</i>	42	ND	(Choudhury et al., 1982)
		<i>Arothron nigropunctatus</i>	38/37	Y–A	(Ojima, 1985)
		<i>Takifugu obscurus</i>	44	ND	(Park et al., 1997)
		<i>Triacanthus brevirostris</i>	48/47	XX/XO	(Choudhury et al., 1982)
Zeiformes	Zeidae	<i>Zeus faber</i>	44/42	Y–A	(Vitturi et al., 1991a)

ND, sex chromosomes not detected; Y–A, Y–autosome fusion; *, genetic sex determination observed or different using other techniques (see Tables 1, 2, and 3); **, polymorphic. The species listed in this table are not intended to be inclusive of all karyotypically examined to date.

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